DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 403 238 SP 037 098

TITLE	International Colloquium on Education: British and American Perspectives (4th, Swansea, Wales, United Kingdom, May 22-24, 1995). Proceedings.
INSTITUTION	Wales Univ., Swansea. Dept. of Education.
REPORT NO	ISBN-0-90094-438-2
PUB DATE	May 95
NOTE	148p.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC06 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Action Research; *College School Cooperation; Cooperative Learning; Educational Change; *Educational Environment; *Educational Policy; Educational Research; Elementary Secondary Education; English (Second Language); Foreign Countries; Higher Education; High Risk Students; Inservice Teacher Education; *Instructional Leadership; Language Minorities; Mathematics Education; Minority Group Teachers; *Partnerships in Education; Standards; Student Evaluation
IDENTIFIERS	United States; University of Wales Swansea; University of Wisconsin la Crosse; Wales

ABSTRACT

This collection of studies represents collaboration between the Departments of Education of the University of Wales Swansea and the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse. The papers are as follows: (1) "Analysing the Social Climate of Schools and Classrooms" (Robert W. Bilby); (2) "Reading Whose World?" (Diane Cannon); (3) "The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics' Standards: Systemic Change for the Twenty-first Century" (M. Elizabeth Cason); (4) "Developing Baseline Assessment: A Useful Tool or a Necessary Evil?" (Gill Harper-Jones); (5) "A Critical Analysis of Identification, Evaluation, Placement and Programming Processes for Students in the United States Who Are Identified as Having Exceptional Needs" (Hal Hiebert); (6) "The Effects of Recent Government Policy on the Provision of English Language Instruction for Children of Ethnic Minorities in South Wales" (Graham Howells); (7) "Cooperative Learning in the Workshop: Integrating Social Skills, Group Roles and Processing to Facilitate Learning in the Integrated Language Arts Classroom" (Carol A. Kirk); (8) "Issues and Concerns: Meeting Needs of Teachers Who Work with At-Risk Youth" (Bob Krajewski); (9) "Inservice Education for Teachers through the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse Continuing Education and Extension" (Barbara Manthei); (10) "Reconnecting Educators: The Responsibility of University Faculty to Public School Faculty--a UW-La Crosse Case Study" (James R. Parker); (11) "Education Policy Making in Wales: A Research Agenda" (Robert Phillips); (12) "Issues and Trends in American Education from the Perspective of an Educator/Student" (Marilyn Pitzner); (13) "Developing Thinking Skills in Mathematics" (Sonia Jones and Howard Tanner); and (14) "The Role of the Subject Head of Department in Secondary Schools--A Neglected Area of School Effectiveness Research?" (C. K. Turner). (ND)

ED 403 238

FOURTH INTERNATIONAL COLLOQUIUM ON EDUCATION: BRITISH AND AMERICAN PERSPECTIVES

PROCEEDINGS

MAY 22 -24, 1995
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF WALES SWANSEA
SWANSEA

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
☐ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
R. Lowe
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

SP037098

FOREWORD

The research collaboration between the Departments of Education of the University of Wales Swansea and the University of Wisonsin-La Crosse is now well established. This most recent collection of essays is the tangible evidence of the strength of that link and of the shared interests which inform the work of both Departments. The need for reflective professionals in education, on both sides of the Atlantic, can surely never have been greater than at the present time. Both Departments can take pride in the fact that their work is underpinned by the research and scholarship which is evidenced in these Proceedings. We in Swansea look forward to further close collaboration and are pleased to publish this collection which will enable wider dissemination of the work brought under consideration at our most recent meeting.

Roy Lowe
Head of the Department of Education
University of Wales Swansea

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The fourth in the series of British-American Colloquia was once again brought about by the organisational efforts of two key individuals, Dr John Parkinson from the University of Wales Swansea and Associate Professor Lee Goodhart of the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse. We gratefully acknowledge, too, the unstinting support of the Chancellor of the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse and the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Wales Swansea, and the heads of the respective Departments of Education.

Acknowledgements are also due to Dr Graham Howells for organising the Colloquium sessions and assembling the papers, and to Steve Kennewell for bringing them to the stage of publication.

CONTENTS

Analysing the Social Climate of Schools and Classrooms
Robert W. Bilby
University of Wisconsin-La Crosse 1

Reading Whose World?
Diane Cannon
University of Wisconsin-LaCrosse 8

The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics' Standards: Systemic Change for the Twenty-first Century
M. Elizabeth Cason
University of Wisconsin-La Crosse 13

Developing baseline assessment: a Useful Tool or a Necessary Evil?
Gill Harper-Jones
University of Wales, Swansea 26

A Critical Analysis of Identification, Evaluation, Placement and Programming Processes for Students in the United States who are Identified as Having Exceptional Needs
Hal Hiebert
University of Wisconsin-Lacrosse 38

The Effects of Recent Government Policy on the Provision of English Language Instruction for Children of Ethnic Minorities in South Wales
Graham Howells
University of Wales, Swansea 46

Cooperative Learning in the Workshop: Integrating Social Skills, Group Roles and Processing to Facilitate Learning in the Integrated Language Arts Classroom
Carol A. Kirk
University of Wisconsin-La Crosse 54

Issues and Concerns: Meeting Needs of Teachers Who Work With At-Risk Youth
Bob Krajewski
University of Wisconsin La Crosse 69

Inservice Education for Teachers through the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse Continuing Education and Extension
Barbara Manthei
University of Wisconsin-La Crosse 83

Reconnecting Educators: The Responsibility of University Faculty to Public School Faculty - a UW-Lacrosse Case Study
James R. Parker
University of Wisconsin-Lacrosse 94

Education Policy Making in Wales : A Research Agenda
Robert Phillips
University of Wales, Swansea 98

Issues and Trends in American Education from the Perspective of an Educator/student
Marilyn Pitzner
University of Wisconsin-La Crosse 112

Developing Thinking Skills In Mathematics
Sonia Jones and Howard Tanner
University of Wales, Swansea 124

The Role of the Subject Head of Department in Secondary Schools - A Neglected Area of School Effectiveness Research?
C.K.Turner
University of Wales, Swansea 133

ANALYSING THE SOCIAL CLIMATE OF SCHOOLS AND CLASSROOMS

Robert W. Bilby
University of Wisconsin-La Crosse

For at least several decades, the 'organizational climate' of schools has been the focus of attention of scholars seeking to identify characteristics of the school environment that are related to valued educational outcomes, particularly student learning. This paper first very briefly reviews the notion of school or classroom social climate as it has been conceptualized and studied by educational researchers and social scientists, and then offers an additional set of concepts for thinking about school social climates.

Background

The terms school 'social climate' and 'school culture', as well as "ambiance" (Goodlad, 1984) and "ethos" (Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore and Ouston, 1979; Grant, 1988), have been used extensively in recent years to label what an observer might call the spirit, heart, personality or character of a school or classroom . The terms 'organizational climate' and 'social climate of the organization' were developed primarily by social psychologists in an effort to demonstrate that the social environment created within organizations influences the attitudes and behaviors of individuals over and above the influence of the purely psychological characteristics individuals bring to the organization. School or classroom social climates are usually studied by obtaining information on how participants perceive social features or processes of the school, such as the teachers' perceptions of the collegiality of the teaching staff and values of the students, or the students' perceptions of shared expectations or teacher supportiveness. While the term 'school culture' refers to similar phenomena, it is couched in a more sociological argot such as the norms, values, ideology or assumptions that characterize a school over and above particular beliefs or habits of individual students, teachers or administrators. A concise overview of the literature on school and classroom social climates is found in Stockard and Mayberry (1992, p. 19-32).

At the level of the entire school, four somewhat overlapping themes characterize findings from research on aspects of school social climates associated with student achievement. One, academic excellence is valued explicitly and there are expectations that students can and will learn. Two, administrative leadership promotes collegiality, is involved in instructional issues, communicates an expectation of excellence to the teaching staff, and encourages teacher participation in school decision-making. Three, there is an orderly, consistent, but not rigid atmosphere with clear policies and a disciplinary system perceived as fair. And finally, morale is high, with teachers satisfied with their work and students reporting academic self-confidence and positive feelings about learning (Stockard and Mayberry, 1972, p. 24-30). While representing an immense amount of research effort, in retrospect these findings are not surprising. Some might even suggest that these are virtually self-evident characteristics of appropriate schooling. Yet the fact that relatively few schools successfully create or maintain such social climates indicates that such research efforts are far from trivial.

At the level of the classroom, research on effective teaching is informative. Effective teachers lead students to engage in as much of the curriculum as they can at a pace at which students can actually learn, maintaining a pleasant orderliness in which students have the maximal opportunity to learn (Stockard and Mayberry, 1972, p. 32). This suggests that in the classroom climate orchestrated by 'effective' teachers the norms call for student effort and concentration, an appreciation of learning on the part of self and classmates, and a respect for the teacher's authority. This inference is consistent

with studies of classroom social climate in science and math that found that measured student learning is greater when students perceive the class to be challenging, satisfying, and without friction, apathy or cliques (Walberg and associates, cited in Stockard and Mayberry, 1972, p. 33).

Grant (1988, p. 117) describes the social climate or ethos of a school as "the sharing of attitudes, values, and beliefs that bond disparate individuals into a community." He goes on to argue that every social organization must balance authority against liberty in the lives of its members, and suggests that the social climate of a school is the direct result of how the adults in the school develop and maintain authority. The absence of authority leads to abusive license, and the absence of liberty leads to tyranny, according to Grant. How school personnel can develop credibility and exercise authority is affected by local and national policies, the mix of family backgrounds, and the broader cultural setting. The relative success of solving the problem of authority is then reflected in the social climate or character of the school. Any analysis of school or classroom climates which ignores the issue of authority is incomplete.

Prior efforts to analyze and learn more about school and classroom social climates have produced rich insights into the origin and effects of the meanings collectively created in schools, and provoked visions of how things could be made better. Goodlad, Grant and many others explicitly or implicitly call for U. S. educators and parents at the local level to do three things. First, get more information about the reality of everyday life in particular schools. Then, do the hard work of forging a consensus on what they want for the youth of their community. Third, in light of the first two, take on the daunting task of figuring out how to create a school in keeping with their values and goals in spite of limited resources and the inevitable conflicts that emerge along the way. A major aspect of all three of these tasks involves attentiveness to social climate issues. This paper offers an addition to this prior work on social climate (not a substitute analysis) that suggests what is hoped are useful concepts that capture important aspects of the social climate in terms that are both intellectually and empirically accessible.

Re-Visiting the Concept of Social Climate

A closer look at just what we mean by the notion of social climate leads to a new set of distinctions. To begin, we need to remember that notions like social climate are abstractions referring to phenomena that are built up from the concrete interactions and relationships that people forge; the reality of 'social organization', 'culture', or 'social climate' is a reality that emerges from people dealing with people. One common element to all such dealings is the exchange of information. People send messages with cognitive, emotional and behavioral content to one another almost continually, subject to the accurate or inaccurate interpretations of those who receive them. If we think of the school's social climate as a 'message environment', we are led to the question of how we might categorize analytically the various of messages that emerge as influential to thoughts, feelings and actions at school.

Changing the focus for a moment, the term 'climate' is most often used in connection with weather and meteorology. We know that the temperature is different in the shade that it is in the sun, that humidity varies somewhat across a locale, and that it can be raining on one side of town and not raining on the other. Yet we still talk intelligibly about the high and low temperature for the day, the measured relative humidity, and whether or not it is raining. These descriptions of the reality of the weather are in fact generalizations about the prevailing features of the weather for a given area at some point at time. Similarly, the social climate can be seen as the predominating messages that emerge from the complex social life at school, and can be analyzed in terms of the thematic content of those prevailing messages. The focus here is less on particular communications than it is on the predominant messages that emerge at school or in a

classroom. While the social climate is created by people communicating with one another, not all messages predominate.

While a variety of schemes are probably possible for categorizing the prominent messages that emerge to constitutive a school's social climate, here the following four analytical categories are suggested: a) directive, or normative, messages; b) evaluational, or value, messages; c) competence, or ability, messages; and d) security, or safety, messages. No one of these analytical categories alone reflects an adequate understanding of social climates, but taken together and in interaction, they comprise a view of social climates that reflects, and complements our current understandings of social climates in educational settings. After a brief and somewhat formal description of each message category, some of the implications of this analytical scheme are discussed.

Directive Messages

As noted earlier, one of the most frequently discussed single themes in the literature on school or classroom social climate is the notion that positive social climates exhibit high expectations for learning. This phenomenon sometimes is incorporated into research as its inverse, the degree to which students experience a sense of academic futility. When effective social norms that focus students and teachers on the tasks related to academic achievement pervade a classroom or school, they are seen as part of the social climate. One interpretation of the essential process here emphasizes the self-fulfilling prophecy, wherein communicated expectations for success and/or subtle cues of encouragement and optimism (combined, of course, with at least adequate instruction) to produce learning outcomes consistent with prior expectations. Another view of how norms work is in terms of a model of compliance to the authority of the teacher and school.

Whatever one's theoretical preference, when a) expectations for behavior are communicated along with b) the perceptions that rewards and punishments hinge on the behavior and c) that the subsequent behavior is likely to be watched to see if it meets the expectation, the behavior is likely to be carried out. Thus, if messages about such normative expectations and messages about the surveillance of behavior are among the predominant messages within the school's social climate, the social climate itself comes to be influential or 'directive', perhaps over and above the particular requests or demands from individuals. When the directive messages in the social climate run counter to teachers' desires for student learning, the particular teacher expectations may be made impotent, and even those students who want to learn may develop feelings of academic futility.

Behavior that is entirely 'directed' is indeed compliant behavior, and may not appeal to educators as an image of humanistic or authentic education. Interestingly, directing someone to do something that they already want to do can erode the original intrinsic enjoyment. But much learning that is at first largely or entirely compliant later becomes internalized and intentional. More importantly, very little behavior develops as 'purely normative' because other aspects of social climate operate simultaneously.

Evaluational Messages

Somewhat parallel to the emphasis on the importance of social norms is a tradition calling attention to the influence of dominant values of a group, organization or culture which are thought to shape behavior and learning. But in contrast to a focus on norms as sanctioned behavioral prescriptions, values refer to emotionally charged beliefs about what is considered important and the standards that will be used in deciding what is valuable. Predominating evaluational messages communicate what is deemed valuable, what should be respected, seen as useful, or thought to be worthy. Here again, the evaluational climate message may be at odds with messages from particular

individuals, such as instances where the climate portrays athletics as more important than academics. Or it may be obvious to students that cheating will not be devalued in spite of a teacher's or a friend's admonitions about honesty as a value.

Values become a complex issue to include in this analysis because sometimes values are most accurately seen as an important part of the context in which teaching and learning occur, and other times values need to be understood as that which is in fact being taught. One of the ways values are taught tacitly is when they are part of the social climate but not part of the curriculum, often referred to in recent decades as the 'hidden curriculum'.

While norms and values are conceptually distinct, obviously they often reinforce each other, sometimes to the point of being empirically redundant. Values typically justify or legitimate norms. But definitions of what is important are not identical with behavioral prescriptions or directions, and it is useful to keep the two ideas distinct to add to our ability to understand social climates. For example, normative pressure can influence situational behavior that is inconsistent with strongly held values. Or values that are or seem inconsistent place people in a moral quandary not easily resolved by reliance on norms or habits. The very notion of hypocrisy rests on the possibility of disjuncture between behavioral norms and beliefs that express values.

Additionally, values sometimes can block comprehension of ideas inconsistent with those values. A strong commitment to a creationist view can make learning the theory of evolution difficult (and vice versa). Called proactive inhibition by psychologists, this feature of a possible function of values in the learning process also sensitizes one to the effects of prominent values in the school's social climate.

In sum, like messages directing people in what is expected of them, messages communicating valued beliefs and standards for judging are an important aspect of the social climate. While messages communicating these values do not independently produce learning, they are an important and inevitable aspect of the climate and the teaching-learning process.

Competence Messages

Individuals must believe that there is some minimal probability that they will learn or else they will probably not even make the effort to do so. Some degree of self-confidence must be present before someone will intentionally attempt to learn. The extensive social psychological literature on self-evaluational establishes that other people whose judgments are trusted or valued serve as a source of feedback that influence self-conceptions of ability. Analogous or parallel social climate messages about individuals or entire groups of people can influence self-conceptions similarly. A student who senses that some or many students are not capable enough to succeed in school may define himself or herself as one of those students. And where the commonly shared opinion is that most students in a particular school, neighborhood, curricular track, or ethnic group are especially incompetent, the members are more likely to take on that belief.

However, as with the other message categories discussed, a shared expression of competence regarding the intellectual abilities of most students is not sufficient in itself to produce desired learning. Feelings of competence are necessary for intended learning to occur, but from the potential learner's perspective, such feelings by themselves are not sufficient to produce intended learning.

Security Messages

Another theme that has received considerable attention under the rubric of social climate is the extent to which schools are personally non-threatening, warm,

comfortable and secure. The notion here is that a physically or psychologically threatening environment is usually a poor learning environment, and therefore comfortable, non-threatening classrooms and buildings are needed for maximally effective teaching and learning to occur. Security messages within the social climate of a school refer to the relative safety, both physical and psychological, of the setting.

As violence at schools in the United States has increased, educators have become increasingly sensitive to the various impacts which violence and the fear of violence have on students, teachers, and the learning environment. At the very least, the physical, intellectual and emotional energy invested in attending to one's own safety detracts from the student's ability to study, learn, or participate in the school culture in other ways. Similarly, a classroom or school that presents a serious threat to one's sense of self-worth or self-competence detracts from learning. Being made to feel bad about oneself is a form of emotional abuse.

In these general ways, being in a relatively non-threatening school environment is crucial to maximizing effective academic teaching and learning. But complete and continuous comfort and safety is everyone's goal. The experience of risk can be thrillingly enjoyable. Part of what is considered 'challenging' to our ability to learn something probably involves the possibility of our failing to show others that we have learned it. Yet this kind of challenge to our 'security' is not what is meant here by hostile or threatening messages. The presence of weapons, police at school, the real or vicarious experience of being bullied on the playground, being humiliated by a teacher in the classroom - these contribute to a social climate where safety cannot be taken for granted.

The efforts in some schools to enhance self-esteem reflects these concerns. But as with other aspects of the school culture, security messages do not influence the entire life of the school, and a major emphasis on security messages is insufficient to achieve all the goals of the school. Some educators seem to believe that a warm, non-threatening environment is all that is needed. But students can be very comfortable and still not learn what is desired or expected. So, too, teachers can be very comfortable and enjoy warmth and high morale and still be ineffective at teaching. A minimal sense of security is necessary to allow us to pay attention to the requests of others and act on our own desires but security messages alone will not ensure school success.

Qualifications

Before discussing the implications of the foregoing analysis, three important assumptions should be made explicit that serve to qualify some of the foregoing. While perhaps somewhat abstract, these issues need clarification to prevent misunderstanding of the intent of this analysis.

First, the communicative activity from which the social climate emerges is a complex and on-going process. The term social climate summarizes the discernible patterns in this process, but does not refer to a mechanical or organic entity. The 'message categories' suggested here are analytical in the sense of drawing attention to important aspects of enduring meanings, but do not point to parts of a edifice.

Second, inherent in human communication is the potential for messages to be clear or ambiguous; also, messages can be unitary and contain only one meaning, or can carry multiple meanings. Thus any particular message from one person to others, or the participants' sense of the messages they discern from their school's climate, can be seen as functioning in more than one of these analytical categories. The prevailing message about what certain norms are, for example, can at the same time carry the message that many are incompetent to fulfill those norms. But there is nothing scientifically unusual here; rain is precipitation, but also has a temperature and can influence the weather in several ways simultaneously.

Third, human communication occurs at many levels, involving at least body language, intonation, facial expression, specialized jargon, slang, idioms, etc. Further, the intended meaning one attempts to communicate may be misunderstood. Thus, because meanings may not be consciously intended or may be distorted or escalated in social discourse, messages may emerge in the social climate inconsistent with the will or the desires of those in authority or those who think they are influential.

Summary and Implications

The school's social climate can be seen as the prevailing messages that emerge. If the prevailing messages in the social climate clarify for students what is expected of them and what is valued at school, and lead them to feel competent and safe, the probabilities are higher that they will attain the academic, personal and social goals held out for them.

While it is probably glib to specify what contributes most to the various aspects of the climate messages, general patterns can be suggested. The curriculum and the disciplinary strategies obviously set the context for the directive messages, as do the taken-for-granted assumptions about what students should learn and how they should behave. School and/or community consensus over both the academic and non-academic purposes of schooling, as well as the sentiments and attachments of the students, shape the values that appear in the school's social climate. Perception patterns in teachers' instruction and assessment practices convey judgments of students' ability in general, always with the potential for differences in perceived ability across social class, gender and ethnic groups. Safety messages emerge from the real or exaggerated reputations regarding violence and bullying on the one hand, and the teacher reputations regarding their willingness to embarrass or intimidate students in the classroom or hallways.

The coherence of these analytical categories and their relationship to educational outcomes has yet to receive systematic research attention in precisely this conceptual format. But the categories are consistent with several schools of thought and bodies of research findings, and the analysis is intended to be a synthesis of what, at least to some degree, we already know. Directive messages obviously can include 'high academic expectations' as can evaluational messages contain academic excellence as a value. Competence messages embrace the literature on influences on self-efficacy and self-concept of academic ability. By couching these themes from the research literature in the terminology of 'messages', they are cast in a less remote frame of reference.

Indeed, this set of categories is intended to be as intellectually accessible to practitioners as possible. Clearly the social science jargon has crept into this presentation, but the central notion is not complex: most students will learn and enjoy learning when adults let youth know what they are being asked to do and what is important, in a manner which builds confidence, where success is likely and in a setting where safety can be assumed. To provide conceptual tools that demystify and yet do not oversimplify understandings of social climate would seem to be a step toward enhancing our ability to intentionally shape school climates.

To state it this baldly perhaps seems a facile or naive claim. The complexities of schooling are such that school climates do not seem subject to extensive control. Far from being a machine that can be tuned to guarantee high performance, they reflect all the obdurate problems, creativity, conflicts, wonders and horrors of the individuals and communities represented at a particular school. But given the importance and complexity of the climate, having a better language with which to describe it would be useful.

A number of issues have not been addressed. Obviously, students contribute immensely to their own school's climate in ways sometimes favored and sometimes hated by school officials; the focus here has been primarily on the contributions to the social climate made by adults at school. Conflict and conflict resolution are only hinted. Intellectual development and academic learning have been emphasized tacitly more than the personal and social development of students. Bureaucratic ossification and governmental constraints have not been mentioned as they might influence or relate to school climates. These and other issues are crucial matters beyond the scope of the present analysis, but which can be integrated with concerns for and attention to social climate issues as articulated here.

It continues to be the mission of educators to supplement parents as the adults who take responsibility for leading youth into adulthood without destroying their curiosity. This is an incredibly difficult task, one made harder by some of the traditions of the school itself. The curriculum and pedagogy are elements in the process of educating, rather than the process itself. Schools inevitably foster social climates which are another crucial element that deserve at least as much attention. The preliminary analysis presented here aims to further the discussion that will lead to the shaping of positive school social climate that reflect and are responsive to the best that we can create for our students and ourselves as educators.

References

Rutter, M., Maughan, B., Mortimore, P. & Ouston, J. (1979). *Fifteen Thousand Hours: Secondary Schools and Their Effects on Children*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.

Goodlad, J. I. (1984). *A Place Called School*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Grant, G. (1988). *The World We Created At Hamilton High*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.

Hurn, C. J. (1993) *The Limits and Possibilities of Schooling* (3rd. Ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Stockard, J. and Mayberry (1992). *Effective Educational Environments*. Newbury Park, California: Corwia Press.

READING WHOSE WORLD?

Diane Cannon
University of Wisconsin-LaCrosse

For the past two years I have been teaching young adult literature to prospective teachers. From my students and from my reading I have encountered certain assumptions. Students assume that the literature is simplistic and treat it so, content to winnow major points of plot, consider characterization in terms of actions, or extract a major emotion or theme that kids can "relate to." Textbooks are titled, prefaced or introduced with apologetic claims that the genre of young adult literature has come into age or other attempts to support the reading and use of this literature in the classroom. As educators we are exhorted to "read their world" and understand their problems - all which strikes me as subtly patronizing and condescending.

In fact, despite our desires to forge good relationships with students by entering the mind and world of young adults, often our real experiences are that young people can be mutinous, difficult, dull, disrespectful. Our theories tell us they are pre-occupied by an uncompromising struggle at self-definition. Yet as teachers of literature we have a task: thrust literature upon them.

It is suggested that we can administer a dose of literature in the classroom albeit with a strident, rock-bedazzled constituency if we teachers develop better relationships with students by learning about adolescent psychology and by understanding their worlds. The onus at cultivating or improving relations hasn't always been on the adult; on the contrary, teens were encouraged to insinuate themselves into the adult world working for approval and harmonious relationships with parent, teachers and friends. In a 1950's survey conducted by *McCall's* magazine and reprinted as an educational pamphlet, some "attractive and lively-minded" teens brainstormed about the ways in which to be popular with girls and boys, teachers and parents. They arrived at some 175 hints. Here is a sampling of their tips for getting along with parents:

> Don't hog the phone.
> Don't do homework in the middle of the kitchen.
> Be tolerant if your parents don't understand some things. Take time to explain it.
> Double-date with them once in a while.
> Compliment your mother's meals.
> When your father is within hearing, tell your friend what a fine golfer he is.
> Indian wrestle with your father and let him win.

Some general principles to follow include the following:

> Give yourself a snappy new nickname, like "Smoke," "Speed" or "Atom."
> Be willing to try longhair things like a museum, a concert or a ballet.
> Visit people in the hospital but no so often that you become a pest.
> Don't steal their fruit.
> Don't be a night owl - it produces circles under your eyes and zeros on your exams.
> Don't be a teacher polisher.
> Don't take an apple to your teacher; take a pizza or a knockwurst.

A tip especially for girls:

> Go home with the date you came with.

And especially for boys:

> Let the girls know you have a savings account.
> If your girlfriend wears braces on her teeth, get a set for yourself.

Charming, quirky and oddly perverse, these tips tell us a great deal about popular thought or social values. Without doubt, they seem terribly superficial, coy, almost manipulative, as if the rise to popularity is a game of artful ingratiation. And certainly the advice on how to hoodwink your parents, studded stereotyped gender assumptions - dad needing ego-boosting and Mom needing compliments for her cooking - reduces complex adult/parent/human needs to the most artificial.

It seems that now the onus has shifted; no longer is it the expectation that young wrangle into the adult world; rather, it is incumbent on adults, at least on educators, to approach the teen on their turf. Language and literature teachers are exhorted to "read their world" and enter into this alien world. We, too, are offered advice. Indeed, much that is helpful or interesting has been written about adolescence ranging from commentary based on observations and theories of psychologists, sociologists, teachers, and others.

I would like to share a short list of advice that was presented to my students of adolescent literature. In a "book talk," two resource specialists at a La Crosse middle school shared some particles of teen psychology and adolescent makeup. They cited the following characteristics of the average young adult. It seems that teens are

> -concrete thinkers
> -unorganized
> -intensely idealistic
> -short on attention spans
> -consumed by personal "fable," that is, they envision themselves playing imaginary roles as a fabricated persona.

In terms of social or emotional development we might expect the average teen to

-have a strong desire for independence
-seek attention but not want to stand out
-test adult value systems
-need frequent success
-swing dramatically in moods
-be self critical

As insight about the actual live-wire individual, such information serves useful; at best it invites us to consider the limitations and needs of young people, recognizing capabilities and cognitive limits. And it invites us to find literature appropriate to those people whose sensitivities and sensibilities can indeed be wired. At worst, realizing that artless teens have limited literary coping skills suggests that we do best to provide fits and starts or spurts of short, simplistic reading, as indeed, was the implied intention of the book talkers who reduced the literature they were presenting to a lackluster splendor of cliff-hanger plots.

During the presentation, I persisted in thinking that the enumerated teen characteristics were pretty flexible; that is, they certainly apply to most adults, and, in fact, are considered positive attributes of healthy adult behavior. What distinguishes these qualities in teens from the same qualities in adults is the transformed terminology. Let's consider. When an adult is a concrete thinker, the adult is considered goal-oriented, sensible, in touch with the material world. A short attention span in the teen is an attention span considered concentrated and focussed in the adult. Unorganized adults are busy, or they take seminars and somehow learn to "prioritize." The adult desiring independence gets tagged a rugged individual, and the adult who seeks attention, but not too much, has simply fine-tuned his narcissism. To test adult value systems for the adult is to be free thinking and autonomous. Mood swings in the adult are chalked up to PMS or sensitivity or low blood-sugar levels. The self-critical adult reflects, contemplates, self examines. In short, these characteristics say as much about concerns of "adultescence" as they do about adolescence which stimulates us to rethink those differences and to value the human side of observations.

In his 1959 book, *The Vanishing Adolescent*, sociologist Edgar Z. Friedenberg addresses the problems of adolescents in an especially forceful and provocative way. His chapter, "Adolescence, Self Definition and Conflict," acknowledges that adolescents struggle, but he sees their struggle as the same struggle all individuals in society encounter whenever they strive to withstand social pressure and to arbitrate personality with environment. Further, Friedenberg advocates for the adolescent: what adults consider insolence or rebellion in adolescence Friedenberg sees as the adolescent's recognition of their ability to liquidate the adult authority over them. Throughout the chapter he invites us to see teens and adults in a very different light, and, indeed, he challenges many of our assumptions what they are trying to do, and more important, what we are consciously and unconsciously trying to do to them.

Friedenberg sees adults and adolescents at odds. He uncovers this tension in an unusual way. He contends that language is a "precise" clue to what is going on

psychologically in a culture and that people name aspects of their experience that mean something to them. When it comes to people between the ages of 13 to 19, he notices, we have imprecision in language, for both terms, "adolescent" or "teenager," are patronizing. He observes that "...we have neutral nouns for persons and things that arouse some kind of feeling in nearly everyone; child, adult, hangman, cancer, mother, mistress, senator (Friedenberg, 1959, p. 5). But when we discuss teenagers, we have neither precise nor convenient language. That we are uncomfortable, reveals a deeper discomfort; namely, we see young people in a different class of humanity (Friedenberg, p.5).

Unlike other so-called primitive cultures, where young people are initiated into adult life shortly after puberty, our society has no such official rites of passage. We certainly have the need to make adults out of adolescents, but we have no apparent means to do so, except our institutions, which, in addition to education, are necessary for inducting the young into modern society. These institutions which mold young people are intended to predispose them both consciously or unconsciously to accept dominant social behavior and make them pliable to our demands and expectations. But unlike the harsh rites of passage, our institutions, he tells us, are "seldom coercive or immediately painful, but rather informal, democratic and apparently mild in operation. They make use of sanctions that hardly hurt at all when applied, but that often make their victims ill much later" (Friedenberg, 1959, p. 7).

This point, that school leaves a harmful residue, is a fomenting one, for as educators it is disconcerting to think of ourselves as slippery manipulators. And yet, as a survivor of school, I recall how many well-intentioned literature teachers forced and strained me to systematically recall what happened in a novel the way they saw it. And now, in my own classes, I see my students, potential teachers, forcing the literature, content to "story map" the plot or simply to shake the hand of the protagonist with the firm grip of identification. They remain immune to the electrifying aspects of archetype or texture of the suggestive power of words. Perhaps because we have to quiz not question, because we are contracted to grade not guide, we often must distort, even limit aesthetic participation in literature. But again I think back, and I am sick that due to multiple choice questions, I was kept from Keats for so long.

Friedenberg challenges other assumptions about schools and adolescents: he maintains that adults basically do not like and respect adolescents, including a large proportion of those who make a career of working with them; he recognizes that adolescents are aware that they are being "handled" by tricky or hostile adults, that adolescents "insult us by quietly flaunting their authenticity"; and finally, that there is conflict - protracted conflict between the adolescent and society (Friedenberg, 1959, pp. 9-12).

In fact, what adolescence is, he defines, "is this conflict, no matter how old the individual is when it occurs." For adolescent conflict "is the instrument by which an individual learns the complex, subtle, and precious difference between himself and his environment" (Friedenberg, 1959, p. 13).

To see adolescence in this way once again invites me to appreciate just how adolescent I am and just how much I want to remain this way, constantly adjusting, adapting,

confronting and defining. But to reconsider adolescence in this way has implications for the teacher of young adult literature and young adults.

As teachers we need to see the complex, subtle and precious differences in this literature. We need to read it with exactly the same rigor as we read adult literature. We need to expect and elicit and encourage complex and subtle psychological and intellectual responses. All that is richly deposited in the best of adult literature can be found in adolescent literature - ready for the taking by young people who ought not to just read for pleasure, but for practice.

References

Amunson, Nancy and Harry, Ann. (1995, March 15) *Young Adult Titles.* Presentation to Adolescent Literature class, University of Wisconsin-La Crosse, La Crosse, Wisconsin.

Friedenberg, Edgar Z. (1959) Adolescence: self definition and conflict. In A. Kazin (Ed.), *The Open Form: Essays for our Time* (2nd ed.) (pp. 3-15). New York: Harcourt.

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF MATHEMATICS' STANDARDS: SYSTEMIC CHANGE FOR THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY

M. Elizabeth Cason
University of Wisconsin-La Crosse

In recent years, a growing concern has been voiced on the national, state and local levels about the effectiveness of mathematics education and the proficiency of mathematical learning in the United States. Mounting evidence from the results of various assessments and other studies (Kirsch and Jungeblut 1986, McKnight et al. 1987, Dossey et al. 1988, Paulos 1988, Lapointe et al. 1989) have indicated that the United States' mathematics education was in a state of crisis and the mathematics students it was producing were underachieving by many standards. It was found that students were learning the mechanics of mathematics without being able to reason, interpret or understand underlying mathematical concepts and principles. They were unable to apply and problem solve in real world situations, to see relationships and connections topics within mathematics and to communicate mathematical ideas effectively. Teaching practices seemed to emphasize memorization and lack a variety of strategies and utilized primarily a "teacher presenter" mode with the students passive recipients rather than an active participants. Assessment was usually limited to paper and pencil work and tests.

Various change initiatives for mathematics in the past have failed because of a fragmented approach, a lack of consensus building for the change and lack of support in the implementation process. At times, the definitions of mathematics basics were too narrowly defined and didn't encourage higher order thinking skills. Classroom teachers often felt that these changes were imposed on them and the curriculum that was proposed lacked an understanding of students' learning and developmental needs (National Research Council, 1989).

The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) recognized the need for systemic change, for building consensus of a vision and for the evolutionary change process and decided to take the leadership role in mathematics curricular reform. They were the "first attempt by any teachers' organization to specify national professional standards for school curriculum in their discipline" (Crosswhite, Dossey and Frye, 1989, p.664). The following three documents or 'Standards' have been produced: *Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics* (1989), *Professional Standards for Teaching Mathematics* (1991a) and *Assessment Standards for School Mathematics* (in press). An addendum series composed of resource books on specific topics and grade levels have also been published to facilitate the implementation of the Standards. The NCTM documents have proven to be a vanguard and model for reform in education. Since the first Standards' publication, other disciplines such as social studies, science and English have produced their own standards.

The Development of the Standards

In 1986, the NCTM Board of Directors established the fourteen-member Commission on Standards for School Mathematics to oversee the development of the Standards. The commission was charged with two tasks:

> 1. Create a coherent vision of what it means to be mathematically literate both in a world that relies on calculators and computers to carry out mathematical procedures and in a world where mathematics is rapidly growing and is extensively being applied to diverse fields.
>
> 2. Create a set of standards to guide the revision of the school mathematics curriculum and its associated evaluation toward this vision.(NCTM, 1989, p.1)

NCTM obtained a grant from Atlantic Telephone and Telegraph Foundation to try to attract external funding from other agencies. Since no further external funding materialized and the financial resources of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics improved dramatically as a result of an increasing membership and national attention to education, especially mathematics education, the NCTM defrayed the remaining expenses of the project. The Board of Directors allocated $150,000 to fund the project initially (Crosswhite, Dossey and Frye, 1989).

Four writing teams were established composed of a cross-section of mathematics educators, including classroom teachers, mathematics supervisors, educational researchers, teacher educators and university mathematicians. By the summer of 1997, a working draft of *Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics* was created and then distributed nationwide to all levels of mathematics education. During the 1987-88 school year, the document was discussed and analyzed with written reactions given from meetings throughout the country and over two thousand individuals. In 1988 a final draft was created which was viewed as a consensus of NCTM members and the general mathematics education community. The final draft was circulated among professional mathematicians and mathematics educators for endorsements and through the broader educational community for letters of support. Fifteen major mathematical science organizations such as American Mathematical Society, Mathematical Association of America and National Council of Supervisors of Mathematics endorsed the vision of the document and twenty five professional organizations such as the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development supported the curriculum and assessment position of the document.

Professional Standards for Teaching Mathematics (1991a) and *Assessment Standards for School Mathematics* (in press) followed a similar working draft to final draft procedure with constructive input from all levels of mathematics education. Since the final draft of the *Assessment Standards for School Mathematics* is in press and will not be available for review until July 1995, only the content of the earlier two documents will be discussed.

Vision and Content of the Standards

Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics

In constructing *Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics,* the NCTM was sensitive to the shift to an informational and technological society and the corresponding shift in societal goals for education and the goals to meet the mathematical needs of all students for the twenty-first century. The technology impacts the mathematics curriculum by:

a) making some mathematics more important because of the requirements of technology,
b) making some mathematics less important because technology replaces it and
c) making some mathematics possible and more dynamic because technology allows and enhances it (NCTM, 1991b).

Five educational goals for students were established as focal points for the mathematics curriculum. They were for students:

a) to recognize the importance and value of mathematics;
b) to be able to communicate mathematically;
c) to reason mathematically;
d) to become confident in their ability to do mathematics and make sense of new problem situations becoming mathematically empowered in the process; and
e) to become problem solvers with instruction growing out of genuine problems from the students' environment and utilizing an inquiry approach.

Mathematical learning is seen as an active constructive process by individuals and/or by a community of learners.

Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics was divided into four sections with the first three concerned with different grade level ranges (grades K-4 for students approximately ages five to nine years old; grades 5-8 for students aged approximately ten to fourteen years; grades 9-12 for students aged approximately fifteen to eighteen years). The final section was concerned with evaluation, and standards were established for general, student and program assessments.

The three curricular sections were divided into thirteen to fourteen standards each. Problem solving, communication, reasoning and connections were common themes or overarching standards for all three sections. The standards advocate a greater emphasis on statistics, probability, estimation and mental mathematics, patterns, relationships, functions, conceptual understanding/sense making and calculator and computer usage.

Problem solving would permeate all phases of mathematics education. Concepts, procedures and facts would be taught via problem solving situations. Students individually and in cooperative groups would actively pose, solve and evaluate genuine problems in a variety of contexts. A greater emphasis would be placed on non-routine open ended problems requiring an inquiry approach versus the more traditional exercise problems that usually practiced a procedure or skill that was just previously learned. The problem solving processes could vary in time from a class period to several months.

The students would evaluate the type of answer required (exact or approximate) and then decide on the appropriate means of calculation (e.g. calculator, computer, paper and pencil, estimation, mental mathematics). Students would be encouraged to utilize multiple solution methods, to be flexible in thinking and to self-monitor and self-verify using an alternative method and/or cross-verify through discussion and justification of answers in a group setting. Reasoning and 'sense making' would be emphasized with students developing the ability to make conjectures, to gather evidence, to formulate models and to build arguments.

Communication of mathematics would include the facets of writing, reading, talking, listening and representing. Writing could include such activities as journals, logs, explanation of strategies or concepts and the creation of original problems and surveys. Talking and listening would involve critical thinking during discussions and the ability to use explanations of mathematical strategies to clarify thinking, to learn from the teacher as well as peers and to construct more powerful schema. Reading and interpreting mathematical information could include such resources as literature books, newspapers and data bases. The student would become able to represent mathematical ideas in a variety of ways. Representations could include the use and interpretation of graphs, pictures, manipulatives, symbols and charts (Cappo and Osterman, 1991).

The Connection Standards advocate connections be established:

a) between topics within mathematics;
b) between mathematics and other disciplines;
c) between mathematics and real world applications and
d) between formal mathematics and the individual student's background of experiences, interests, thinking strategies.

It is recognized that students come to a learning situation not as blank slates but with prior informal mathematical experiences, naive theories and often misconceptions that need to to assessed and addressed during instruction.

Curiculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics advocates that students study mathematics every year they are in school, that an integrated core curriculum with depth differentiation be used to accommodate individual differences in the upper grades and thatall students should have access to the program.

Evaluation Standards views assessment as an integral part of teaching and an ongoing, continual process prior to, during and after instruction. Students' attitudes, beliefs, thinking strategies, naive theories, and misconceptions should be assessed in addition to their content knowledge. A broad range of tasks in a variety of contexts and problem situations should be utilized that require students to apply a number of mathematical concepts and procedures and use critical thinking skills. Multiple means of assessment should be employed that make use of calculators, computers and manipulatives when appropriate. These means of assessment might include concept or semantic mapping, journal writing, portfolios, performance tasks, questioning and observation with the use of checklists and anecdotal records. The selection of assessment methods and tasks should be aligned with the goals, objectives and mathematical content taught as well as the instructional approaches used in the

teaching of the content. Mathematics programs should be systematically evaluated through the collection of useful and relevant data on outcomes, curriculum and instruction. The data should not be limited to standardized test results. The information would then be used to make decisions concerning the curriculum and instruction and to guide modification and changes in the program.

Professional Standards for Teaching Mathematics

Teaching is seen as a complex practice. It is recognized that teachers are the key figures in implementing any changes in how mathematics is taught and learned. Changes in dispositions concerning the nature of mathematics and how it should be taught and evaluated as well as changes in actual teaching practices take time and require the long term support of teachers through continuing education, resources, mathematics educators and peer experts, administrators, school districts and other agencies and institutions.

Professional Standards for Teaching Mathematics (1991) consists of the following four major components each with a series of standards:

a) teaching mathematics,
b) evaluation of the teaching of mathematics,
c) the professional development of mathematics teachers and
d) the support and development of mathematics teachers and teaching.

To illustrate the multiple dimensions of teaching and evaluation, annotated vignettes and narratives with discussions were used in the document.

Standards for Teaching Mathematics views teaching as an integrated and interdependent activity with four core dimensions. The teacher:

a) establishes the learning goals and objectives and then selects or creates appropriate mathematical tasks to help students achieve the goals and objectives;
b) stimulates and orchestrates the classroom discourse through a variety of tools such as manipulatives and computers to explore multiple perspectives and strategies, to clarify and expand students' higher order thinking, and to make connections and see relationships;
c) creates a supportive intellectual, social and physical environment where students view themselves and the teacher as a community of learners;
d) analyzes the effectiveness of instructional tasks, discourse and environment through systematic reflection as to how well the tasks and environment foster mathematical literacy in every student and then modify teaching practices where and when needed.

Improvement of teaching effectiveness and enhancement of long term professional growth are goals of the evaluation of mathematical teaching. The degree of professional growth from the evaluation process depends on how the evaluation is conducted. Because teaching is a complex activity, the corresponding evaluation of it is also complex. Evaluation would include self-evaluation on a continual basis, peer or mentor feedback and conferences with supervisors.

Quality of pre-service and in-service teachers' mathematics professional development is vitally important if the vision of the Standards is to be implemented into practice. It requires:

a) the modeling of quality mathematics teaching with first hand experiences with problem solving, communication, reasoning and connections as envisioned by the Standards;
b) knowing the mathematics content and school curriculum;
c) knowing the ways students learn and think about mathematics;
d) knowing sound mathematics pedagogy;
e) career long development as a teacher of mathematics;
f) teachers' roles in professional development.

Standards for the Support and Development of Teachers and Teaching recognizes that other persons, agencies and institutions affect the teaching of mathematics beyond the classroom teacher and impact the environment in which the teacher teaches. These include: a) policy makers in government, business and industry, b) schools and school systems, c) colleges and universities, and d) professional organizations.

The Impact and Implementation of the Standards

National Level

The NCTM views the creation of the Standards documents as the beginning first stage in the process of mathematics educational reform in the United States. The challenge lies now in the transformation of the vision into a reality of implementing the suggested practices into individual classrooms by individual teachers. Rather than being a prescriptive packaged mathematics curriculum, the Standards are seen as a vision statement and a guide or framework for states, school districts and individual teachers to begin to create curriculum reflecting their own mission, goals and objectives.

Through national and regional conferences, its four journals, its materials catalog which includes the twenty-eight books in the *Standards Addenda* series, videotapes, informational publications for business leaders, parents, educational leaders and government policy makers and resources for calculator and computer usage, the NCTM has attempted to disseminate information about the Standards and offer support resources to assist teachers and school districts in implementing the vision of the Standards into teaching practice. Alternative assessment resources for mathematics are available both through NCTM and commercial publishers, such as *Mathematic Assessment: Myths, Models, Good Questions and Practical Suggestions* (Stenmark, 1991), *Alternative Assessment Evaluating Student Performances in Elementary Mathematics* (Ann Arbor Public Schools, 1993) and *Assessment Alternatives Mathematics* (Stenmark, 1989).

The NCTM annually meets each November with textbook and test publishers to inform them of the Standards and the latest developments in mathematics education. Textbook publishers in their more recent publications have attempted in various degrees to integrate calculators, computers, manipulatives, more real world situations in problem solving and other disciplines into mathematics instruction. An example is the University of Chicago mathematics series. Their textbook series *Everyday Math*

(1995) for students approximately 5-8 years old provides each student with a small zippered bag called a tool kit that contains a calculator, rulers, play money and cards for various practice in a game format. Their series for older students intergrates real world mathematical applications throughout its program. Textbooks still have room for improvement in the areas of depth, higher order thinking activities, more open ended inquiry problem solving situations and less fragmentation of mathematics topics and content.

Tests on various levels are beginning to incorporate more performance based tasks, either in place of or supplementary to the more traditional multiple choice format and to allow calculators to be used. For example, the 1992 National Assessment of Educational Progress, which assesses a representative sampling of fourth, eighth and twelfth grade students (approximate ages of eight, fourteen and eighteen years), has more performance-oriented tasks where students construct their own responses. Now one-third of the questions (utilizing about one-half of the students'response time) require students to construct their own responses. Extended response questions were new to the 1992 assessment. These questions allowed students at least five minutes to complete a task requiring the demonstration of mathematical reasoning and problem-solving abilities by writing, giving examples or drawing diagrams. At times protractors, calculators or "manipulable" geometric shapes were provided (Dossey, Millis and Jones, 1993).

Both the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) and the American College Testing (ACT), often used as screening instruments for admission to colleges or universities, have begun to allow the use of calculators on certain forms of the test. The tests are exploring alternative methods of testing and are revising test content to be more aligned with the Standards. Alternative testing methods include computerized, adaptive mathematics placement tests, more open-ended and constructed response questions (Braswell, 1992; Noble and Mullen, 1992).

State basic compentency tests are undergoing change. They are beginning to allow calculators to be used on items assessing measurement, geometry, applications and problem solving.

States are revising their state mathematics curriculum guides to be aligned with the Standards. 41 states plus the District of Columbia have undergone this revision.

State Level

A Survey of Four States

The results of an on-going investigation to measure the effects of the curriculum and evaluation standards on practice was published in the May 1995 issue of the *Mathematics Teacher* journal (Garet and Mills, 1995). Mail-in questionaires were sent to the mathematics department chairs in 550 schools in the states of Illinois, Indiana, Michigan and Wisconsin. The response rate was 72 percent with 397 chairs responding.

Four areas of instructional practice in first year algebra courses were examined: curriculum content, teaching methods, technology and assessment methods. The chairs

of the mathematics departments were asked to rate the degree of emphasis given in their schools on several algebra topics in 1986 and 1991 and anticipated in 1996. The topics included factoring and operations with rational expressions, the structure of number systems, functions, discrete mathematics, probability and statistics. All the topics but factoring are recommended by the Standards to have a greater emphasis in instruction. The data suggests the beginning of a shift in the first-year algebra curriculum to be more aligned with the Standards. The rate of change differed among the five content areas.

Utilization of lecture-discussion, in-class problem sets and guided practice, cooperative learning and extended written and oral reports on mathematical topics were investigated in the survey. The Standards are recommending that cooperative learning and extended written and oral reports should play a substantially larger role in instruction, that lecture-discussion should be de-emphasized and that in-class problem sets and guided practice be given a moderate emphasis. The data indicate that lecture-discussion and in-class problem sets remain the dominant mode of instruction in first-year algebra courses. The use of cooperative learning has increased substantially while the use of reports remains limited.

The study investigated calculator and computer usage to support problem solving, the use of calculators or computers for graphing and the use of tests that require calculators or computers. The Standards advocate a subtantial increase in the utilization of technology in mathematics classrooms. The data indicate that calculator use has increased dramatically since 1986. Although computer usage has not increased to the same degree as calculators, the expectation is that use of computers will increase substantially by 1996. Calculators and computers are increasingly being used in tests.

The survey investigated the changes in the methods of assessing students' mathematical performance. The Standards suggests the decreased use of mutliple-choice and short- answer tests and increased use of written and oral reports, and partner and group tests. The data indicate that short-answer tests remain the dominant form of assessment with a slight increase in the use of mutltiple-choice examinations. Written and oral reports and partner and group tests seem to be used infrequently but their use is growing.

To determine the degree of variation from school to school, the scales for content, methods, technology, and assessment for each school were averaged to form an index to measure the school's consistency of practice with the Standards. It was found that "the range ofvariation across schools is quite substantial" and that "the variation is increasing over time" (Garet and Mills, 1995, p.383).

Wisconsin

Wisconsin's state mathematics curriculum guide, created in 1986, emphasizes a majority of the content, instructional strategies and assessment methods advocated by the Standards. Donald L. Chambers, Supervisor of Mathematics Education for the state of Wisconsin, supervised the creation of the state mathematics curriculum guide and also served on a writing team for the *Professional Standards for Teaching Mathematics* (1991). Thomas A. Romberg, a professor at the University of Wisconsin-Madison and Director of the National Center for Research in Mathematical Sciences

Education, served as the chair of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics' Commission on Standards for School Mathematics that supervised the creation of the *Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics* (1989).

As an outgrowth of statewide educational goals for learners, institutional educational support and societal support, the state in 1992 established the Wisconsin Student Assessment System. The system is in the developmental stages now and will become mandatory by 1997. It will assess fourth, eighth and tenth grade students' (approximate ages of nine, fourteen and sixteen years) proficiency and growth in mathematics, language arts, science and possibly social studies. The mathematics portion of the test reflects the Standards both in the content it assesses and the methods of assessment. The test will include the following three sections:

a) knowledge and content portion consisting of 30-40 multiple choice (machine scored) and short-answer questions (trained scorers);
b) performance assessments requiring students to apply information from multiple sources to problem solving situations, and then construct and communicate responses;
c) voluntary local portfolio assessments demonstrating student's progress over an extended period of time and including student's reflection on how he or she is applying information to solve problems.

The Wisconsin Mathematics Council is extremely active in providing high quality state and regional conferences and workshops for teachers to assist them in implementing the vision of the Standards. Its 1995 annual state conference had over 257 sectionals with well respected mathematics researchers, educators and writers from the national and state level presenting. The topics of the sectionals represent the full range of the Standards.

Local Level

University of Wisconsin-La Crosse
Mathematics education courses for pre-service and in-service teachers at the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse's School of Education emphasize the vision of the Standards. The mathematics education faculty give presentations on various mathematics education topics at regional, state and local conferences, provide in-services and graduate courses for local teachers, give presentations to parents at local schools and work with local teachers and with the Student Wisconsin Education Association (SWEA) in a consultant position. In the fall of 1994, SWEA planned and implemented a Math Fun Day for area Girl Scouts with the assistance of mathematics education faculty. The themes of the Standards are woven throughout these activities.

The mathematics methods course for elementary teachers is one of three elementary methods courses scheduled in a block and affiliated with the second clinical field experience. Through the mathematics methods course, the pre-service teachers become knowledgeable about the components of the Standards and the Wisconsin mathematics curriculum guide, educational learning theory as it applies to mathematics, components of effective lesson, the pedogogy of teaching various mathematics topics, and calculator, computer and manipulative usage. The overarching standards of

problem solving, communications, connections and reasoning as well as the evaluation standards are emphasized, modeled and applied in various ways. The pre-service teachers have direct experiences with methods for teaching mathematics using manipulatives, writing, children's literature, the integration of topics within mathematics and the integration of other disciplines and real life situations into mathematics education.

As part of the clinical or field experience portion of the course, the pre-service elementary mathematics teachers create and implement an integrated mathematics lesson and use several alternative assessment techniques in a pattern analysis assignment with two elementary students. In the mathematics lesson, the pre-service teacher is required to integrate a selection of children's literature in teaching as well as actively engaging students in the learning process. After the lesson is implemented, the pre-service teacher obtains constructive feedback from the cooperating teacher and reflects on his or her professional growth as a result of the planning and implementation of the lesson. In the pattern analysis assignment, the pre-service teacher is required to select two students of differing ability and then:

a) interview each concerning their attitude and beliefs about mathematics, what a good mathematics teacher does and their confidence level in doing mathematics;
b) investigate other factors influencing the students' academic performance using an interview with the cooperating teacher and classroom observations;
c) observe, question and keep anecdotal records as the elementary students do written mathematics work, problem solving or performance tasks;
d) create an instructional plan for each student based on the earlier gathered data specifying the content, special instructional strategies and manipulatives that would be used;
e) reflect on how the alternative assessment assignment aided their professional growth.

Local School Districts

Local school districts have revised their mathematics curriculum guide in varying degrees to be aligned with the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics' Standards . Each district has adopted textbook series which are closely aligned with the Standards. One district has retained its traditional sequence of mathematics courses in the secondary school (Algebra I, Geometry I, Algebra II, Plane and Solid Geometry, Trigonometry and Calculus) for college bound students integrating scientific and graphing calculators and computer usage. The non-college bound curriculum has undergone a major revision. The three courses (Math I, Math II, Math III) now integrate the mathematical topics of algebra, geometry, probability and statistics. With each unit, the students in small groups of three to six members do open-ended application projects that use real life situations. For example in the Math II course, students do projects that

a) investigate DNA and inherited traits;
b) investigate the manipulation of voting precincts using demographic data
c) work with sonnet poetry and music;

d) design a recreational room, draw the plan to scale and do comparison shopping to furnish and equip the room with an entertainment center;
e) investigate forest fires in Wisconsin and work with environmental education information.

In a 1993 survey conducted in one school district, the mathematics coordinator said in an interview that the teachers who taught mathematics agreed with the components of the Standards and all the teachers with some reservations favored the implementation of the Standards but admitted that they were not as knowledgeable about them as they would like.

Some school districts have supported the teachers in becoming more knowledgeable and implementing the Standards. Some of the districts have provided inservices at various grade levels on the Standards, supplementary materials to implement them and learning theory or have encouraged teachers to teach fellow teachers in after school workshops. The districts have also have supported the teachers with resource materials. The materials include:

a) Exemplars (Kallick & Brewer) program that provides two open-ended problem solving performance tasks per month for students ages five to fourteen years old. The problems are a required component of each student's portfolio. The problems are on software that is received monthly by district as a subscriber and can be adavted and changed to fit special teaching or learning needs.
b) Mathline, a new year-long professional development opportunity in Wisconsin where mathematics educators mathematics educators share their ideas over a computer network.
c) calculators, computers with supporting software and manipulatives.

In one district, grade level teachers were encouraged to send regular letters to parents to communicate the content and activities under current study in their classrooms. The same district provides telephones in each classroom to facilitate communication and schedules an hour and half each month for parents to discuss issues of concern with the district administrators.

Individual Classrooms and Teachers
Teachers within the various school districts vary greatly in their knowledge and dispositions concerning the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics' Standards. Some teachers still are primarily using a traditional approach to teaching and assessing mathematics with a close dependence on a mathematics textbook and more teacher directed lessons. Some teachers are changing their approach to teaching mathematics because of the textbook's alignment with the Standards.

It is encouraging to see the number of teachers that truly believe in the Standards and are implementing them in their classroom. They are having students actively involved in a variety of problem solving experiences that often use the context of real life and/or immediate classroom situations, that encourage the students to explore a variety of strategies and justify their answers and that integrate ve writing and reading. The teachers use a variety of assessment techniques to evaluate students' learning in

mathematics such as portfolios, journals, performance tasks, checklists, observation, questioning, analysis of written work and students' self-assessment. The teachers often integrate topics within mathematics and other disciplines with mathematics within themes such as quilts, tropical rainforests and endangered species. A variety of teaching strategies are employed from teacher demonstrations, computer simulations, role playing, whole class direct instruction, small group or partner projects. Computers are more readily accepted than calculators but increasingly calculators are being used in mathematics instruction. Graphing, estimation, mental mathe[atics, probability, number sense and spatial sense are being emphasized more.

Conclusion

The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics' vision of what mathematics' curriculum and evaluation should be in order to equip students to be mathematically literate and to mathematically empower students seems to have begun to taken root and started to flourish on the national, state and local levels. Its reform agenda is bringing about systemic changes in what content is being taught, emphasized and assessed, evaluation techniques, attitudes and dispositions of school districts, administrators, teachers, students and parents. These changes are better preparing students mathematically for the twenty-first century.

References

Ann Arbor Public Schools (1993). *Alternative assessment evaluating student performances in elementary mathematics.* Palo Alto, CA: Dale Seymour Publications.

Braswell, J.S. (1992, January). Changes in the SAT in 1994. *Mathematics Teacher*, 85 (1): 16-21.

Cappo, M. & Osterman, G. (1991,February). Teach students to communicate mathematically. *The Computing Teacher.* 34-39.

Crosswhite, F.J., Dossey, J.A. & Frye, S.M. (1989). NCTM Standards for school mathematics: Visions for implementation. *Mathematics Teacher,* 82 (8): 664-671.

Dossey, J.A., Mullis, I.V.S., & Jons, C.O. (1993). *Can students do mathematical problem solving?* Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

Dossey, J.A., Mullis, I.V.S., Linquist, M.M., & Chambers, D.L. (1988*). The mathematics report card: Are we measuring up?* Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

Everyday Mathematics (1995). Evanston, IL: Everyday LearningCorporation.

Garet, M.S. & Mille, V. L. (1995). Changes in teaching practices: The effects of the curriculum and evaluation standards. *Mathematics Teacher*, 88 (5): 380-389.

Kirsch, I.S. & Jungeblut A.(1986). *Literacy profiles ofAmerica's young adults.* Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Services.

Kallick, B. & Brewer, R. *Exemplars A Teacher's Solution.* Underhill, VT: Examplars.

Lapointe, A.E., Mead, N.A., & Phillips, G.E.(1989). *A world of differences: An international assessment of science and mathematics.* Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

McKnight, C.C., Crosswhite, F.J., Dossey, J.A., Kifer, E,Swafford, J.O., Travers, K.J., & Cooney, T.J.(1987). *The underachieving curriculum: Assessing US school*

mathematics from an international perspective. Champaign, IL: Stipes Publishing.

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (in press). *Assessment standards for school mathematics.* Reston, VA: Author.

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (1989). *Curriculum and evaluation standards for school mathematics.* Reston, VA: Author.

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (1991a). *Professional standards for teaching mathematics.* Reston, VA: Author.

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (1991b). *Standards blackline masters and presentation guide.* Reston, VA: Author.

National Research Council (1989). *Everybody counts: A report to the nation on the future of mathematics education.* Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.

Nobel, A.C. & Mullen, K.B. (1992, January). The ACT assessment in the 1990's. *Mathematics Teacher*, 85 (1): 22-25.

Paulos, J.A. (1988). *Innumeracy: Mathematical illiteracy andits consequences.* New York: Hill and Wang.

Stenmark, J.K. (1989). *Assessment alternatives mathematics.* Berkeley, CA: EQUALS Lawrence Hall of Science.

Stenmark, J.K. (Ed.). (1991). *Mathematics assessment: Myths, models, good questions & practical suggestions.* Reston, VA: National Council of Teachers of Mathematics.

Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction (1986, reprinted 1992). *A Guide to Curriculum Planning in Mathematics.* Madison, WI: Author.

Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction (1995, January). *Wisconsin Student Assessment System performance assessment sampler.* Madison, WI: Author.

DEVELOPING BASELINE ASSESSMENT: A USEFUL TOOL OR A NECESSARY EVIL?

Gill Harper-Jones
University of Wales, Swansea

Introduction

This paper examines the arguments surrounding the development of baseline assessment for school entrants and discusses the feasibility of producing a developmentally appropriate assessment which will also allow value-added calculations to be made. Blatchford and Cline (1992) suggest that this is a novel challenge for those involved in assessment on school entry, requiring the solution to three sets of problems. First, how to ensure the reliability and accuracy of the information, second, how to make the information both useful to teachers and communicable to parents and last, how to connect qualitative information collected on school entry to quantitative information of levels of attainment obtained at age seven.

The context

What has triggered the push for baseline assessment?

The current moves to establish some kind of baseline assessment at school entry can be traced back to the early 1980s, when the escalating costs of education in many areas of the world came under increased scrutiny and there were calls for greater accountability (Carr and Claxton, 1989). In the United Kingdom, this led to the imposition of the National Curriculum and its associated assessment procedures, which were established by the wide ranging powers of the Education Reform Act (1988). It has been argued (Hargreaves, 1989) that the whole thrust of educational reform in the 1980s was driven not by curriculum or pedagogy, but assessment, which became "the prime focal point for educational change".

Accordingly, since the 1988 Education Reform Act, it has been a statutory requirement, in England and Wales, for teachers to assess their pupils at the end of each of the four key stages of education (i.e. at the ages of seven, eleven, fourteen and sixteen years) and since 1993, the government has published schools' and colleges' GCSE and A level examination results. These initiatives are part of an overt political agenda aimed both at raising educational standards and giving parents more information on which to base their choice of schools for their children. The publication of raw examination scores in the form of "league tables" has caused disquiet amongst educationalists at all levels, not least because the tables take no account of the entering characteristics of individual schools' pupils, making it impossible to judge accurately the educational "value" which a school has "added".

At the secondary level of schooling serious attempts are being made to address this issue, with researchers using sophisticated statistical techniques, such as multi-level modelling, to re-evaluate the raw data of results tables in order to determine how well a school is doing relative to the average and other schools. It is possible in these

calculations to take a range of variables into account, including socio-economic data, but a consensus appears to be emerging that prior attainment constitutes the most important factor. For example, Fitz-Gibbon (1994), writing recently in the Times Educational Supplement, reckoned that home background accounts for no more than 9% of the variance in exam results, whereas measures of prior achievement account for at least 36%. Secondary schools often have at their disposal, the results of a number of locally administered measures, such as Local Education Authority (LEA) reading test results at eleven years, and these are commonly used as a baseline against which to judge children's later performance. With the advent of national curriculum testing for this age group, it will soon be possible for schools to use the scores from the national reading, mathematics and spelling tests as part of their baseline assessments.

It has always been the government's intention to encourage the publication of the results of national curriculum assessments carried out in primary schools. However, the teachers' boycott of the tests in 1993 and 1994 has thus far prevented this, so that 1995 will be the first year for which a complete set of results will be available for scrutiny. Whilst scores from the national curriculum tests at the end of Key Stage 2 (children aged eleven years) will, as we have seen, provide a baseline for measuring secondary school performance, there is at present no comparable baseline against which to measure attainment at Key Stages 1 and 2. Arguably, the level scores from the national curriculum assessment at the end of Key Stage 1 (children aged seven years) could be used as a baseline for attainment at Level 2, but this does seem a very crude measure involving, as it will, only three or four levels. Neither does it solve the problem of how progress and attainment at the end of Level 1 can be fairly assessed without some notion of the children's starting point two or three years earlier. Hence the argument for a quantitative baseline of entering characteristics to be established at 5 years of age, so that assessment results at seven years could be used to determine the "value added" by the school, rather than merely comparing a school's raw results with the national standard.

It is not surprising, therefore, that headteachers, particularly of schools in areas of socio-economic disadvantage, are keen to develop baseline assessments which will allow them to measure their school's effectiveness relative to the prior ability of their intake. Headteachers hope that the use of value-added measures will prevent invidious comparisons with schools in more privileged catchment areas and will also assist them in bidding for a fair share of the economic cake.

There is disturbing evidence (Stierer, 1993) that some schools have begun to use the National Curriculum levels of attainment as the "main units of measurement" in their baseline profiles of rising fives. Often these consist of little more than a record of which Level 1 statements children are able to satisfy by their fifth birthday. (No doubt based on the logical, but flawed, reasoning that if each level of the attainment targets represents roughly two chronological years of educational growth and the average seven year old can be expected to achieve Level 2, then Level 1 ought to be the baseline for the average five year old). Other schools have pursued this line of reasoning even further, and have invented a Level 0 for those children who do not achieve Level 1 on entry to school.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

It is difficult not to struck by the irony of a situation in which primary teachers, whose vociferous arguments that a ten-level, ten-subject national curriculum were inappropriate for the early years went unheard in 1989, are now applying those self-same criteria to the youngest children in the school system in what has been described as the "downward spiral of assessment" (Stierer, 1993).

But it could be argued that this inappropriate use of the National Curriculum attainment targets has more to do with "teacher protection than child development" (Blenkin, 1992) and that reception and nursery teachers are being forced to compromise their principles as the "accountability buck" is passed further and further down the line. These top-down pressures for the "effective delivery" of, what has proved to be, an unworkable National Curriculum have led to feelings of defeat and disempowerment amongst many early years teachers and these are compounded by continued, and often vitriolic, attacks regarding reading standards and teaching and organisational methods.

Although early years teachers may have the responsibility of carrying out baseline assessments, the initiative for developing these measures has not sprung from them, but rather from headteachers feeling the pressures of public accountability to governors, the Local Education Authority, Her Majesty's Inspectors, and parents. It is hardly surprising, therefore, to find that one of the largest research projects currently developing and piloting baseline assessment and based at the University of Newcastle upon Tyne, is being funded by the National Association of Headteachers (Performance Indicators in Primary School (Tymms, 1995)).

According to a recent survey carried out by the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER), only two LEAs, Avon and Wandsworth, have implemented widescale baseline assessment with a clearly stated intention of carrying out value added analyses (Hill, 1994). Both LEAs have been collecting baseline data since 1993 and are due to carry out the value added analysis of the first cohorts to have completed Key Stage 1 in the summer of 1995. Other LEAs are proceeding in more piecemeal fashion. In Birmingham, for example, in 1994, 43% of primary schools took part voluntarily in baseline assessments and in 1995 the proportion rose to 67% with more expected to join in 1996 (Guardian, 23.5.95). Sheffield (1991), on the other hand, has developed a baseline assessment for under fives, designed to be used in all settings, including starting school, but which is clearly unsuitable for completing value added calculations.

Traditionally, the early education lobby has held very different views of the assessment of young children and it is to these we now turn.

Issues in early years assessment

A. Purposes of assessment

Despite Drummond's (1993) assertion that questions of what, when, where and how to assess are of secondary importance beside the more searching question of "Why assess?", it certainly appears from the literature on early years assessment, that much more attention is given to the former than to the latter. Interestingly, "Making

Assessment Work", a book co-authored by Drummond (Drummond, Rouse and Pugh,1992), whilst long on principles, feelings and values, is distinctly short on any comprehensive discussion of purposes. Many of the aims listed in the pack are circular, and appear to be more concerned with informing teachers about assessment so they may become better assessors, rather than better teachers!

Whilst individual writers tend to emphasise different purposes in line with their personal philosophies, the aims of assessment in the early years seem little differentiated from those of later stages and share many points of similarity. Perhaps the best summary of the purposes of assessment appear in the guidelines of the American National Association for the Education of Young Children (1991) which declare that assessment provides information necessary for making important educational decisions that affect the child including:

instructional planning
communicating with parents
identification of special needs
programme evaluation and accountability

British educationalists tend to take a softer line with regard to accountability and so we find terminology such as "reviewing provision" (Stierer, 1993), "informing curriculum planning and evaluating provision" (Lally, 1991), "helping the teacher evaluate curriculum provision" (Dorset Education Authority, 1990) and "to review provision as a whole" (Drummond, Rouse and Pugh, 1992).

Only Stierer (1990,1993) and Blatchford and Cline (1992) include explicit reference to the aim of using entry assessments as a basis for measuring future progress, but hold different views on how this could best be achieved as well as the uses to which the information might be put. By far the majority of aims in the recent literature might be termed "child-centred", and are associated with getting to know the individual child's strengths as a starting point for improved teaching and learning. Drummond et al. (1992) add an equal opportunities dimension, insisting that assessment should benefit all children regardless of special needs, ability, ethnicity, culture and heritage.

The whole question of collecting and using baseline data as part of a larger accountability exercise is an issue that, so far, has been little exercised at primary and early years level and as a consequence, there is no substantial research literature of a theoretical or technical kind. It is apparent, however, that moves towards baseline assessments geared towards value added calculations will bring a much harder edge to questions of accountability, particularly in the case of unfavourable value added scores. (Early results from Wandsworth and Birmingham are hopeful, in that they indicate the positive effect of nursery education on pupils' performance and this is particularly marked for children whose first language is not English or come from disadvantaged backgrounds.)

B. What should be assessed and how?

It is immediately apparent, both from examining published examples of early years assessment materials and from reading the literature, that there is a deep divide

between child-centred practitioners, who advocate qualitative forms of assessment which encompass the "whole child", and a more hard-nosed, psychometric camp promoting quantitative approaches, which are often narrower in focus and stress skills and knowledge. Although it is beyond the scope of this paper to rehearse the different philosophies underlying this distinction, the question of whether some form of rapprochement is possible will be returned to later on.

i. Qualitative, observational approaches Traditionally, early years practitioners have maintained descriptive records of children which are longitudinal, cumulative, based on close observation and a knowledge of child development. Although generally formative in nature, the collected data can be used as the basis of summative reports.

Various frameworks for recording such information have been produced, often by teachers themselves, through INSET courses (Mid-Glamorgan Foundation Profile, 1991), in collaboration with Higher Education institutions ("PROCESS," Stierer et al., 1993), and research projects ("Target Child Observation Method", Sylva et al., 1980). Some are commercially produced, such as "PROCESS" (1993), but many are local initiatives with limited availability.

The categories represented in these frameworks vary, but commonly these cover aspects of social, emotional, physical and cognitive development with differing degrees of emphasis. Thus the "High Scope Record of Key Experiences"(Drummond et al., 1992) includes sections for recording social and emotional development, movement and physical development, and cognitive development incorporating representation, language, classification, seriation, number, space and time. The "PROCESS" record (Stierer et al.,1993), on the other hand, is called a "classroom observation notebook" and has a cognitive emphasis, which also stresses children's attitudes to their own learning. The headings used are interaction, attitudes, investigating/problem-solving, communicating/representing/interpreting, and individual needs/Special Educational Needs.

In addition, records often contain a section devoted to life history which may include information about position in family, health problems, hospitalization, eating habits, and details of previous pre-school experiences, all of which are usually gathered during parental consultations on entry.
The protocols accompanying these frameworks and early years assessment manuals usually stress regular, planned, targeted observations of individual children, with an average duration of ten to fifteen minutes a day. Often a rota system, with a set number of children observed per day/week/half-term, is suggested as a means of ensuring that all children receive equal attention. The essence of qualitative, observational approaches lies in using the collected observations to build up a picture of the "whole child" over a period of time and crucially, deferring judgements until sufficient evidence has been accumulated. The emphasis, common to all assessments of this type, is essentially a positive one, in which the "strengths, interests, and experiences of young children are identified as leading points for learning" (Hurst and Lally, 1992)

Descriptive information gathered in this way can be used as the basis for a summative record when reporting to parents or to other colleagues, such as when a child moves from nursery to reception class or begins full-time school. Arguably, the more regularly

detailed observations have been recorded, the more informative and valid the summative record will be (Stierer,1993).

As Blatchford and Cline (1992) point out, whilst such information may well be helpful in obtaining a picture of the child, it is important to recognise that it will not provide the kind of baseline which will allow the linear measurement of progress and which is necessary if value-added calculations are to be made.

ii. Quantitative Approaches These methods of assessing young children have most usually been developed by psychologists and are widely available from publishers and testing agencies, such as the NFER.

A variety of formats is used to gather information, including rating scales *(Infant Rating Scales*, Lindsay, 1981; *The Infant Index*, Desforges and Lindsay 1995), checklists (*Keele Pre-school Assessment Guide*, Tyler, 1980), and performance measures (*Bury Infant Check*, Pearson and Quinn, 1986, and *Early Years Easy Screen*, Clerehugh et al., 1993). Many of these types of assessment are skills based and include categories such as memory skills, oral language skills, number skills, perceptual-motor skills, auditory reading skills, visual reading skills and active body skills.

Assessing a young child's performance on tasks devised expressly for a test can be misleading, particularly if they are outside that child's experience, so test constructors usually try to ensure that performances can be measured during activities that are part of the normal classroom context and are thus familiar.

All these approaches allow some form of quantitative measurement to be made, often involving either sub-test scores, total scores, profiles (or combinations of all three) which can be compared with the cumulative scores of the standardisation sample.

Some of these instruments were developed in the 1980s as a response to the 1981 Education Act and are commonly employed by schools and educational psychologists as screening devices, with the aim of identifying children with special educational needs at an early stage in their school career. They are now attracting renewed interest as 'off-the-shelf' baseline assessments for use in value-added calculations at the end of Key Stages 1 and 2.

Although all these instruments are based, implicitly or explicitly, on skills that are considered important for future progress at school, there may prove to be very weak correlations between some of these items and later attainment at seven years (Blatchford and Cline, 1992). In Tizard et al.'s 1988 study of young children in inner city schools, for example, the strongest predictor of attainment at seven was the amount of reading, writing and number knowledge the children had before they started school and specifically, the number of letters they could identify at age four ($r= 0.61$). Other items with apparent face validity, such as word matching ($r= 0.31$) and concepts about print ($r= 0.27$) were relatively weak predictors. Care needs to be taken, therefore, in ensuring that the selection of items in a baseline assessment is grounded in thorough preparatory empirical work, with an explicit rationale and adequate sampling procedures.

C. Who should be involved in assessment?

There is widespread support in the United Kingdom (Lally and Hurst, 1992, Dowling, 1988, Drummond, Rouse and Pugh, 1992, Stierer et al., 1993) for the argument that any assessment of very young children, whether carried out by playgroup, nursery or school staff, should include the views of parents, whose intimate knowledge of their children places them in the best position to report upon their progress and development.

Some schemes, such as the checklist *All About Me* (Wolfendale, 1990) have been designed specifically as a record for parents to complete. The manual even suggests that parents should involve the child in the task of filling in the booklet, so that it represents both the child's as well as the adult's views and feelings. To this end all the statements in the checklist are couched in the first person, for example, "I am old enough now to go to the toilet by myself" to be checked either "yes" or "not yet". The resultant record is intended to give parents a basis on which to discuss their child's progress with nursery and infant teachers or playgroup leaders.

There are others, such as the PROCESS pack (Stierer et al.,1993) and the *Mid Glamorgan Foundation Profile* (1991), which recognise the value and significance of the parents' contribution, by including sections to be completed in discussion with them, but without handing over the entire procedure. This is by far the most common approach, incorporating notions both of starting "where the child is" and actively involving parents very early on in their child's educational life and progress. This explicit involvement of parents in the assessment of their young children is in direct contrast to the approach advocated by the American NAEYC (Bredekamp & Rosegrant,1992), where parents are seen as the main audience for assessment information rather than contributors.

Where the assessment is observational, ongoing and formative, a good case is often made for involving other adults and professionals with whom the child comes into contact during the nursery or school day (including nursery nurses, student teachers, parent helpers and nursery nurses in training), either directly, by making their own records of selected children or activities, or by relieving the teacher in order that s/he might do so. (Dowling, 1988, Lally, 1991, Lally and Hurst, 1992,). However, the teacher is seen as having primary responsibility not only for integrating and organising the information collected by others, but also for summative recording and reporting.

The same arguments could be applied to more quantitative forms of assessment, with the teacher taking the major role in recording and reporting, but being supported and informed by other adults working alongside.

D. When should assessments be carried out?

Traditionally, information concerning developmental milestones, likes, dislikes and self-help skills is gathered and recorded in consultation with parents either before or shortly after young children join nursery or reception classes. Generally, nursery and reception teachers assess and record in a formative way throughout out the year, using this longitudinal evidence as the basis of a summative report for parents and/or the next

class teacher at the end of the year. Because both nursery and reception age children fall outside the scope of the National Curriculum assessment and reporting requirements, some schools and LEAs have devised assessment systems designed to be used from the beginning of nursery through to the end of the reception class, with built-in opportunities for summative reporting at key points (e.g. *Mid-Glamorgan Foundation Profile*)

The question of timing is much more crucial with regard to baseline assessments. In the United Kingdom, it could be argued that the obvious and most appropriate time for a baseline to be completed is on entry to formal schooling at age five. But this is not quite so straightforward as it might first appear, as in some LEAs children are admitted into reception classes as four year olds, some admit rising fives and some wait until the term after the child's fifth birthday

The picture is further complicated by the fact that in some areas of the country (South Wales, in particular), LEA pre-school provision is widespread, and some five-year-olds entering reception classes may already have had two years of part-time schooling (if their birthday falls in September, for example, as entry is linked to birth date). This raises the issue of whether the baseline assessment for such children should be moved back two years to when they first enter pre-school. Whether baseline assessments of three-year-old children can ever be sufficiently reliable or accurate enough to form the basis of value added calculations, or whether they should even be attempted, is a debatable point, the not so hidden agenda of which can only be fully appreciated by a minor digression into politics.

Pre-school education in the United Kingdom is at present voluntary and far from universal. Currently, there is a powerful lobby from parents, teachers and educationalists to make pre-school provision available to all three- and four-year-olds, such that the government has publicly stated its commitment to extending provision within the lifetime of the present parliament. Whereas parents and teachers were keen that decisions should be made in terms of long-term educational gains for children, it is, in fact, short-term economic considerations which have prevailed.

Despite the accumulating research evidence, (not least that provided by early data from baseline assessments in Wandsworth and Birmingham) that LEA nursery classes and schools are having positive effects on educational performance, they are expensive both to set up and run. On the supposed grounds of "choice and diversity" the Department for Education has proposed instead a voucher scheme, under which eventually, all parents of four-year-olds will be given £1000 to spend on their preferred form of pre-schooling. Such a scheme will mainly benefit parents in urban areas, where there is already a greater choice of LEA and private nurseries and playgroups than rural counties. However, the amount of money available is insufficient to fund widespread new provision and as much of it is being found from current LEA grants it may possibly result in cut-backs in current LEA provision. Equally LEAs without provision are unlikely to be tempted into setting up nursery classes or schools on the basis of this kind of funding as capital expenditure, running costs and teachers' salaries could not be guaranteed. Indeed, it is questionable just who will benefit, as the funding is only for four-year-olds, (not three-year-olds, as first promised), many of whom are already in full time schooling in reception classes. Playgroups, originally thought to be

net gainers under the proposed scheme, (since they are usually staffed by volunteers and leaders who are paid a modest fee), have been told to expect only £500 per child, which does not cover the costs of even minimal part-time playgroup provision (estimated at £700 for three mornings per week per annum).

For political reasons therefore, state sector nursery teachers are keen to be seen providing an effective service and headteachers are keen to promote pre-school education as value for money. Baseline assessments for three-year-olds are viewed, particularly by headteachers, as a useful tool in calculating the value added by pre-school education, which subsequently can be used as a weapon in the battle with local administrators and in the war with central government to justify, maintain and expand pre-school provision. Pre-school teachers, whose personal philosophies of early childhood education might be expected to be at odds with baseline assessments and value added calculations, are having to grasp the nettle in order to safeguard jobs and continued funding. The, as yet, untested assumption that pre-schooling will demonstrably add value to children's educational progress is being taken for granted by both parties, although as we have seen, first indications from Birmingham and Wandsworth are good.

Developing a Baseline Assessment

As is now apparent, the picture that emerges from the literature is a paradoxical one. Early years teachers, as we have seen, are happiest with qualitative forms of assessment which are longitudinal and descriptive and take into account "the whole child". The push for baseline assessment, on the other hand, appears to run directly counter to the child centred culture and philosophy that permeates early years education, requiring, as it does, quantitative information collected about children possibly as young as three years old.

Theoretically, it ought to be possible to develop some form of baseline assessment which meets the needs of the value added lobby without violating the sensibilities of early years teachers. For the last six months, I have been working with a group of headteachers and early years teachers to try to do just this. We are now part way through the process of producing an instrument that can be used in pre-school and reception classes and which will be piloted next year.

I was initially approached in September, 1994, by a group of primary headteachers from a geographically remote and socially deprived area of Wales to offer advice about baseline assessment. Their schools had recently lost funding (which had been linked to the poor economic status of the catchment area) and additionally were under pressure from their local secondary school to raise the attainments of the children they sent up. The group of heads needed proof, that given the low starting point of many of the children, the schools actually did a good job and that the progress of children relative to their baseline was better than could be expected.

I agreed to work with them to try to provide evidence of the value added by the schools in order:

a) to strengthen their case to the LEA for their lost funding to be reinstated.
b) to improve relationships between the feeder primary schools and the secondary school.

It was recognised that speed was of the essence and that a start should be made by collecting baseline information on this year's cohort of five-year-olds as soon as possible, so that the first value-added calculations could be made at the end of Key Stage 1 in two years' time (1997). Since it would have been impossible to devise a completely new baseline assessment in such a short space of time, a decision was taken to use a commercially available 'off-the-shelf' assessment for this first attempt. After trawling through the range of materials available and discussing alternatives with the teachers involved, it was decided to use the *Infant Rating Scale* (Lindsay, 1981). Although a fairly old scale, it had the benefit of being relatively quick to score and mark, the items met with teachers' approval, it had a good empirical base and it was cheap. The assessment was carried out in the third week of January, 1995, by reception teachers in five different schools and involving a total of 90 children. I scored the assessments, set up a data base for them and fed the results back to the schools at the beginning of February.

Having met the immediate short term aim of collecting data amenable to statistical analysis, it was agreed at a subsequent meeting with the headteachers that I should work with a group of teachers to produce a tailor made baseline assessment. Originally, it was thought that the assessment would be carried out in the reception class with five year olds, but in discussions with all the early years teachers in the five schools, strong feelings were expressed by the nursery teachers that the baseline assessment should be carried out on entry to pre-school, at the age of three.

Work began immediately on planning and devising the assessment with a view to piloting the draft version in September, 1995. The initial meetings were largely concerned with agreeing the parameters of the instrument and in collecting and examining as many forms of early assessment as we could lay our hands on. Individual teachers then took responsibility for devising different sections of the schedule, which were brought back to the whole group for discussion and alteration. I have tried to act as arbiter, adviser and sometimes devil's advocate in what have proved to be lively and thought provoking sessions.

I did raise the question at the start of this paper as to whether rapprochement was possible between the quantitative and qualitative perspectives of early childhood assessment. In practice, working on a baseline assessment for three years olds it has proved impossible to reconcile the two viewpoints. On the one hand, are head teachers who are keen to have at their disposal an accurate, quantitative, cost effective and easy to administer baseline assessment; on the other are early years teachers who will not compromise their principles and say that such an assessment is neither feasible nor desirable.

I believe that, through compromise, what we have achieved is in the best interests of the children and the profession. The headteachers have agreed that quantitative

assessment will be confined to five-year-olds in their first term at school using a commercially produced and standardised baseline assessment (*Infant Index*, Desforges and Lindsay, 1995). The qualitative assessment schedule, for children aged three years and up, which the teachers devised themselves, will be piloted as planned in September, 1995, and evaluated at the end of the year. In two to three years time it should be possible to estimate the value of both the quantitative and qualitative measures in terms of their predictive validity in the educational performance of children and their usefulness to teachers in planning teaching experiences to meet the needs of particular children.

Bibliography

Blatchford, P. & Cline, T. (1992) Baseline Assessments for School Entrants, *Research Papers in Education*, 7(3), 247-69.

Blenkin, G. & Kelly, V. (eds.) (1992) *Assessment in Early Childhood Education.* London: Paul Chapman.

Bredekamp, S.& Rosegrant, T. (eds.) (1992) *Reaching Potentials: Appropriate Curriculum*
Assessment for Young Children. Washington D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Carr, M. & Claxton, G. (1989) The costs of calculation, *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies*, 24(2) 129-39.

Clerehugh, J., Hart, K., Pither, R., Rider, K. & Turner, K. (1993) *Early Years Easy Screen* Windsor: NFER/Nelson

Desforges, M.& Lindsay, G. (1995) *Infant Index*, London: Hodder & Stoughton.

Dorset Education Authority (1990) *Starting Out: Working Together Developing Early Years Assessment Procedures.* Dorchester: Dorset County Council.

Dowling, M. (1988) *Education 3-5: a Teachers' Handbook.* London: Paul Chapman.

Drummond, M. (1993) Assessing Children Learning London: David Fulton.

Drummond ,M., Rouse, D. & Pugh G. (1992) *Making Assessment Work: values and principles in assessing young children's learning.* Nottingham: NES and National Children's Bureau.

Fitz-Gibbon, C. (1994) Three Routes to the Wrong Answer, *Times Educational Supplement*, 9.11.94, 11

Hargreaves, A. (1989) *Curriculum and Assessment Reform* Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

Hill, P. (1994) *Value Added Analysis: Current Practice in Local Education Authorities.* Slough: Education Management Information Exchange.

Hurst, V. & Lally, M. (1992) Assessment and the Nursery Curriculum. In G.Blenkin & V. Kelly *Assessment in Early Childhood Education.* London: Paul Chapman

Lally, M. (1991) *The Nursery Teacher in Action* London: Paul Chapman.

Lindsay, G.(1981) *The Infant Rating Scales* London: Hodder & Stoughton.

National Association for the Education of Young Children (1991) Guidelines for Appropriate Curriculum Content and Assessment in Programs Serving Children ages 3 through 8, *Young Children*, 46(3), 42-47.

Pearson, L. & Quinn, J.(1986) *The Bury Infant Check.* Windsor: NFER/Nelson.

Stierer, B. (1990) Assessing children at the start of school: issues, dilemmas and developments *Curriculum Journal* 1(2), 155 - 169.

Stierer, B., Devereux, J., Gifford, S., Laycock, E., & Yerbury, J. (1993) *Profiling, Recording and Observing.* London: Routledge.

Sylva, K., Roy, C. & Painter, M. (1980) The Target Child Observation Method. In *Childwatching at Playgroup and Nursery.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Tizard, B., Blatchford, P., Burke,J., Farquhar, C. & Plewis, I. (1988) *Young Children at School in the Inner City.* Hove: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Tyler, S. (1980) *Keele Pre-School Assesment Guide* Windsor: NFER/Nelson.

Tymms, P. (1995) *Performance Indicators in Primary Schools,* University of Newcastle upon Tyne, Project Newsletter.

Wandsworth Research & Evaluation Division (1994) *Wandsworth Baseline Assessment 1993/4 REU 39/94* London: Wandsworth Education Department.

Wolfendale, S. (1990) *All About Me* Nottingham: NES Arnold

A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF IDENTIFICATION, EVALUATION, PLACEMENT AND PROGRAMMING PROCESSES FOR STUDENTS IN THE UNITED STATES WHO ARE IDENTIFIED AS HAVING EXCEPTIONAL NEEDS

Hal Hiebert
University of Wisconsin-Lacrosse

Education of children in the United States is primarily the responsibility of the individual states. There have, however, been several areas in which the federal government has engaged in educational initiatives.

The National Defense Education Act involved the federal government in several programs that were designed to enhance educational preparation of students and the military preparedness of the country. The act supported programs that were designed to strengthen the quality of education in math and science, improve the quality of school libraries and technology, support students' learning of basic skills of reading and writing and mathematics, and improve equity of educational opportunity.

More recently, a federal initiative has occurred in the area of education for students who were either excluded from school or were failing to achieve the full benefits of school because of physical, cognitive or emotional differences that appeared to limit their access to learning opportunities. The landmark federal legislation that supported this work was Public Law 94-142, the Education for Handicapped Children Act. The Education for All Handicapped Children Act became federal law in 1975 and was re-enacted as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1990.

Findings on which the 1975 act was based included observations that:

(a) there were more than 8 million handicapped children in the United States;
(b) the special educational needs of these children were not being fully met;
(c) more than half of the handicapped children in the United States did not receive appropriate educational services;
(d) one million handicapped children were excluded entirely from the public school community;
(e) because of the lack of adequate services many parents were forced to seek services outside of the public school system;
(f) developments in teacher training and diagnostic and instructional procedures had advanced to the point that, given appropriate funding, State and local educational agencies could provide effective special education and related services for these children;
(g) state and local agencies had responsibility for providing education for all handicapped children but present financial resources were inadequate;
(h) it was in the national interest that the Federal Government assist State and Local efforts to provide programs to meet the educational needs of handicapped children

These legislative findings became the foundation on which the law that encompassed the following six general principles was developed.

Principle 1, which has been referred to as the "Zero Reject", or "Free and appropriate public education" principle stated that all children, no matter how severe their disabilities have a right to a free and appropriate public education. Principle 2 established the right of Procedural Due Process. Procedural requirements included (a) commitments to gaining consent of parents and (b) involvement of parents in the process of identifying planning for and placing their children in appropriate educational settings. Principle 3 established the requirement of an Individualized Educational Program (IEP) to describe the educational services that the student was to receive. The IEP was be prepared by school personnel, parents and other significant person in the child's life.

Principle 4, the Least Restrictive Environment Principle, established the requirement that children be educated with non-disabled children in as normal settings as appropriate. Commitment to this principle is consistent with the "normalization" practices that have been proposed by Wolfensberger (1980). Principle 5 established a commitment to Non-discriminatory Testing and Evaluation. The law required application of widely accepted principles of psychometric testing and evaluation. Primary concerns in this area included attention to the quality of assessment instruments, appropriate selection and application of assessment practices, and careful consideration of the ways in which handicapping conditions and cultural and socioeconomic factors might influence the validity of assessment instruments for individual children. Principle 6 established a requirement of Parental Involvement in the identification, assessment, planning, placement and educational processes. The law required that the parent be kept informed at all stages of the process and become substantively involved in all decisions regarding the child's education.

The law also included specific requirements for identification, evaluation, placement and intervention for students who were to be served in special education programs. Procedural requirements were designed to assure that (a) all students who met qualification criteria had access to special education programs and services (b) students would receive special education services only if the they experienced a handicapping condition and needed special education services and (c) students would not be placed in special education programs because of cultural, socioeconomic and racial differences. The tension between access to services and right to due process is clearly present in PL 94-142 procedures.

Access to special education is initiated through the referral process. The law states that any person who is concerned about the welfare of a student and suspects the student may experience a handicapping condition may refer a student for evaluation. Each school district must have in place procedures for accepting and processing referrals. The law also requires that information on handicapping conditions be disseminated to teachers, parents, and community persons. Dissemination of such information is designed to increase awareness of handicapping conditions and increase the accuracy of referral recommendations. The law further states that when a referral is made the student's parents must be informed of the referral. The school district must accept and address every referral by planning an individualized educational evaluation of the student. A multidisciplinary assessment team must be selected based on information gathered from the referral statement and process. Individual members of the assessment team are assigned responsibilities for specific evaluation procedures. The

due process component of the law requires that the evaluation concerns regarding the student and the evaluation processes to be carried out be described to the student's parents and that the parents give their written permission before evaluation takes place.

Evaluation procedures begin with formal and informal information gathering. Interviews, observations and informal testing are completed by members of the assessment team. Formal testing may also be completed during this time. Each member of the evaluation team then writes a report of their respective findings. When all of the evaluation team members have completed their work they meet to consider their findings. Parents are invited to attend and participate in this meeting. The committee's decision is recorded and a formal report of findings is placed in the student's records.

The assessment team is responsible for answering two questions: Does the student have a handicapping condition? and Does the student need special education services as a result of the handicapping condition? If the answer to both of these questions is in the affirmative, a group of individuals including members of the assessment team and individuals who may be assigned to work with the student and the student's parent/s meet to plan an IEP for the student. The law states that the IEP must include:

(a) a statement of the child's present level of educational performance;
(b) annual goals and short-term objectives;
(c) a statement of the educational services to be provided and the degree to which the student can participate in regular education;
(d) a statement of the transition needs beginning no later than age 18 and annually thereafter;
(e) the projected date for initiation and anticipated duration of services;
(f) objective criteria for determining at least on an annual basis, whether the criteria are being achieved.

Following completion of the IEP, selected members of the IEP committee and one or more representatives of the school board meet to plan an educational placement. The placement committee makes recommendations to the school board regarding the special education services that are to be received by the student and the site/s at which the services should be delivered. The school then makes a placement offer to the parents and with the parents approval, the student is "placed" in the special education program. Federal law requires that students receive the services that are indicated in the IEP.

Twenty years have passed since the federal initiative that called for "appropriate education for all handicapped children in the least restrictive environment" was encoded into law in the form of PL 94 - 142. In that time the federal share of the cost of special education programs has increased from $373 million in 1977 to $2.173 billion in 1993. In 1993 5,170,242 children between the ages of birth and 21 years received federal assistance. The number of students receiving special education services in US schools has increased by more than 33 % since 1976. In 1994, more than 8 % of all US students received special education services (U. S. Department of Education).

The increasing commitment to special education programs and services that has occurred over the past 20 years has been accompanied by increasing concerns about the effectiveness of special education services and programs. The increasing number of students receiving special education services, the cost of special education services (U. S. Department of Education; Chaikind, Danialson & Brauen, 1993), and the effectiveness of special education services are among the most frequently voiced concerns (Lipsky & Gardner, 1989; Stainbac:k & Stainback, 1992). Some researchers (Yesseldyke, Algozzine, Richey & Graden, 1982) have argued that placement of students for special education programs can not be justified because, identification procedures currently used to select students for special education services are neither reliable or valid.

Yesseldyke considered the processes of referral, evaluation, and placement that are currently in place in a series of studies (Yesseldyke, Throw, Graden, Wessen, Algozzine & Deno, 1983). Yesseldyke and his colleagues drew several generalizations from their studies. They found that more than 90% of the students referred for special education were evaluated and more than 70% of the students who were referred were placed in special education programs (Algozzine, Christenson & Yesseldyke, 1982). The results of these studies suggested that if a student is referred for special education evaluation it is highly likely that he or she will be placed in special education and receive special education services. In light of these findings Chalfant and Pysh (1989) have suggested that if special education placements are to be reduced, it is reasonable to consider the referral process as a point of intervention.

Chalfant and Pych (1989) have proposed that schools develop Teacher Assistance Teams (TAT). Teacher Assistance Teams are typically made up of three or more general education teachers who agree to meet on a regular basis to consider the educational needs of students in their school. Any teacher may request assistance from the TAT. Teachers who wish to receive assistance from the TAT complete a simple form that is designed to provide a description of the educational problem. The teacher who is requesting assistance then meets with the TAT to (a) come to a consensus about the nature of the problem, (b) help the requesting teacher to develop a plan for resolving the problem, and, (c) develop a follow-up plan to assess the effectiveness of the plan. Chalfant and Pych found that more than 80% of the concerns presented to the TAT's were resolved to the satisfaction of the requesting teacher. Chalfant and Pych have contended that many of the students evaluated by the TAT's would have been referred for special education. The 80% resolution data would appear to suggest that the TAT process may provide an alternative to special education services for some students.

Others (Idol, Nevin, Paolucci-Whitcomb, 1994) have recommended consultation and/or collaborative consultation as educational practices that will decrease what they believe may be unnecessary special education referrals and placements. In this process special education teachers, school psychologists, general education teachers, and other school personnel engage in individual and/or small group problem solving interactions for the purpose of resolving educational concerns prior to referring students for special education evaluation. Research evidence on the effectiveness of consultation has not effectively differentiated outcomes for pre-referral and special education students. There is, however, considerable evidence that consultation has been effective for both

increasing student performance and improving teaching practices (Idol, Nevin & Paolucci-Whitcomb 1994).

The educational planning process for students who receive special education services is centered on the IEP. The IEP process is problematic in several areas. First, the IEP planning process was designed to be one in which significant persons in the student's life engage in a cooperative problem solving and planning process to develop an educational program for the student. The process that takes place, however, tends too often to be one in which the special education teacher "presents" his/her educational plan to student's parents (Goodman & Bond, 1993). To resolve this problem, IEP meetings would need to be arranged so that parents and school personnel actually engaged in considering and making a commitment to (a) what the student needed to learn, (b) interventions and resources that assure, to a reasonable level, that the learning would take place, and (c) how and when the learning would be assessed (Bateman, 1992). Such a meeting would ideally result in both parents and teachers leaving the meeting with a clear understanding of the expected outcomes and their individual and cooperative commitment to achieving the goals.

A second concern related to the IEP raises the issue of the degree to which it is actually used. Framers of PL 94 - 142 intended that the IEP would serve as an individualized program that is designed to guide the individual educational adaptations that will be made for the student. Several studies have found that (a) there is little relationship between IEP goals and objectives and assessment findings (Lynch & Beare, 1990), (b) special education teachers make little or no use of the IEP (Margolis & Truesdell, 1987) and (c) "general" education teachers have little information about the contents of IEPs of the students in their classes (Pugach, 1984). Why should this be? Why should a planning process that was thoughtfully conceived apparently result in so little positive effect? A retrospective analysis of special education practices may shed light on IEP issues .

Special education in the United States had its beginning as a system in which students who were not successful (or were not predicted to be successful) in "regular" school placements were excluded from their classrooms and sent somewhere else (a residential facility or isolated special class). The history of special education from the 1940s to the 1970s was largely the story of developing "special" classrooms, teachers, and services. Students who were identified as handicapped were separated into classes by handicapping conditions. Teachers were prepared to teach students with each handicapping condition. The processes of identification evaluation and placement that represented acceptable practice during that time were designed to assist educators with decisions regarding which student should be placed in special education classes or programs. The social and legal conflicts that precipitated PL 94 - 142 were centered on the issue of whether the public schools had responsibility for education of students who were different from their peers and were identified as handicapped. The law that emerged out of the debate confirmed the right of all children to a "free and appropriate" public education. However, the law went beyond this "access" criteria and stated that the education must also be (a) individualized (b) appropriate, and (c) in the least restrictive environments.

Taken at its full intent, the law might have been interpreted to state that the ongoing practices of identifying students and placing them in isolated special units was to be replaced by practices in which (a) the individual educational needs of students would be evaluated (b) an appropriate educational program would be designed for the student and (c) the program would remove the students from "normal" educational experiences only in situations in which the appropriate education criteria could not be met in the "normal" setting.

Thoughtful consideration of current special education practices suggests that the requirements of the new law may have been distorted to apply to ongoing practices. Thus the multidisciplinary evaluation process which was intended to require thoughtful evaluation and consideration of the unique characteristics and needs of the students continued to be largely a process of gathering evidence to support or deny placement of students in special education programs. Similarly, the IEP process which was designed to result in an individualized program appears to have been distorted to one of finding and describing matches between the programs that the special education program offers and the student's needs, an approach that fails to recognize the individual uniqueness of students.

The law states that each child must have a special education program. The program must be based on the assessment information gathered and presented by the multidisciplinary assessment committee. The special education "placement" is based on the educational assessment and plan and when carried out becomes a part of the educational program. In practice, the IEP process has become the process of meeting with the teacher and filling out a form. The form is them placed in the student's file and the school assumes it has met its responsibilities. This distortion is supported by state and federal monitoring processes that are almost exclusively focused on review of special education records. Hence, the actual educational interventions (program) that students receive might be quite different from the forms that are on file (plan).

A final set of concerns raised by critics of current special educational planning and teaching processes questions the outcomes of special education. Two of the most discouraging findings regarding special education outcomes are in the areas of school completion and post school life adjustment of students who have received special education services. More than 20 years after the implementation of PL 94 - 142, the school drop out rate of students who are identified as exceptional remains significantly higher than that of the non-handicapped population (Halpren, 1991-1992). More than 50% of the students who are identified as emotionally disturbed drop out of school.

Studies of the post-school adjustment of students who complete special education programs have produced results that are also problematic. The unemployment rate for students identified as handicapped is nearly 50%. (Brolin, 1991). The status of special education students in other areas of life adjustment such as home and community living have also been the subject of critical review (Hasazi, Gordon & Roe, 1985). The observation that US schools have seen increasing numbers of students receiving special education services, spending increasing amounts of money on special education without clear accompanying improvements in outcomes is problematic. Some special educators have defended current practices (Hallahan, Kauffman, Lloyd, & McKinney, 1988). Others have called for comprehensive reevaluation and elimination of special

education programs. The US Office of Education - Special Education Programs, has responded to these concerns by supporting research on the outcomes of special education (Yesseldyke & Thurlwo, 1993).

The issues that are raised in this paper are not meant to contribute directly to the argument regarding the effectiveness and efficiency of current special education practices. Rather, they are meant to raise what I believe are fundamental issues regarding discrepancies between the intent of current legislation and current practice. I contend that current practice does not reflect the intention of legislation for students to receive special education programs that are based on careful study of students' unique characteristics and needs rather than placement of students in programs. Special education is still perceived by many educators to be a place. To the extent that the misconception that "putting the student in the right place" is the primary purpose of educational assessment and planning the commitments expressed in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act will not be realized.

References

Algozzin, B., Christenson, S., & Yesseldyke, J. E. (1982). Probabilities associated with the referral to plaeement proeess. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 5, 19-23.

Bateman, B. (1992). *Better IEPs*, Creswell, Oregon: Otter Ink. Brolin, D. (1991). Life centered career edueation: A competency-based approach. Resston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children.

Chaikind, S., Danialson, C. L., & Brauen, M. L., (1993). What do we know about the cost of special education? A select:ed review. *The Journal of Special Education*. 26, (9) 344-370.

Chalfant, J. & Pysh, M. (1989). Teacher assistance teams: Five descriptive studies. *Remedial and Special Education*, 10, (6), 49-58.

Christenson, S., Yesseldyke J., & Algozzine, B., (1982) Institutional constraints and external pressures influencing referral decisions. *Psychology in the Schools*, 19, (3),.341-345.

Goodman, J. F., & Bond, L. (1993). The individualized educational program: a retrospective critique. *The Journal of Special Education*, 26 (9), 408-422.

Hallahan, D., Kauffman, L., Lloyd, J., & McKinney, J. (1988). Introduction to the series: Questions about the regular education initiative. *Journal ofLearning Disabilities*, 21, (1), 3-5.

Halpern, A. (1991-1992), December-January). Transition: Old wine in new bottles. *Exceptional Children*, 58 (3), 202-212.

Hasazi, S., Gordon, L., & Roe, C. (1985). Factors associated with the employment status of handicapped youth exiting from high school from 1879 to 1893. *Exceptional Children*, 15, 47-68.

Idol, L., Nevin, A., & Paolucci-Whitcomb, P. (1994). *Collaborative Consultation*. Austin Texas: Pro-ed.

Lynch, C. L., & Beare, P. L. (1990). The quality of IEP objectives and their relevance to instruction for students with mental retardation and behavior disorders. *Remedial and Special Education*, 11, (2), 48-55.

Margolis H., & Truesdell, L.E., (1987). Do special eclucation teachers use IEPs to guide instruction. *The Urban Review*, 19, (3), 151-159.

Price, M., & Goodman, L., (1980). Individualized eclucational programs: A cost study. *Exceptional Children*, 46, (6), 446-454.

Pugach, M., (1982). Regular classroom teacher involvement in the development and utilization of IEP's. *Exceptional Children*, 48, (4), 371-374.

Smith, S. W., (1990). Comparison of individualized education proqrams (IEPs) of students with logical and empirical analysis of current practices in classifying students as handicapped. *Exceptional Children*, 50, 160-166.

U. S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs (1994) *Sixteenth Annual Report to Conqress on the Implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act*. Washington, D. C.: Author.

Wolfensberger, W., The definition of normalization: Update, problems, disagreements, and misunderstandings. In R. J. Flynn & K. E. Nitsch (Eds.), *Normalization, Social Integration, and Community Services.* Baltimore: University Park Press, 1980.

Yesseldyke, J. E., & Thurow, M. (1993). *Developing a model of educational outcomes* (NCEO Outcomes & Indicators Report 1). Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota, National Center on Educational Outcomes.

Yesseldyke, J. E., Thurow, M. L., Bruniks, R. H., Deno, S. L., Mc Grew, K. S., & Schriner, J. G. (1991). *A conceptual model of educational outcomes for children and youth with disabilities* (Working Paper 1). Minneapolis, MN:University of Minnesota, National Center on Educational Outcomes.

Yesseldyke, J., Algozzine, B., & Epps, S. (1983). A logical and empirical analysis of current practices in classifying students as handicapped. *Exceptional Children*, 50, 160-166.

Yesseldyke, J., Algozzine,. B., Regan, R., & Potter, M, (1980). Technical adequacy of tests used by professionals in simulating decision making. *Psycholoqy in the Schools*, 17, 202-209.

Yesseldyke, J., Algozzine, B., Richey, L., & Graden, J. (1982). Declaring students eligible for LD services: Why bother with the data? *Learninq Disabilities Quarterly*, 5, 37-44.

Yesseldyke, J., Thurow, M., Graden, J., Wesson, C., Algozzine, B., & Deno, S. (1983). Generalizations from five years of research on assessment and decision-making. *Exceptional Education Quarterly*, 4, 75-9.

THE EFFECTS OF RECENT GOVERNMENT POLICY ON THE PROVISION OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION FOR CHILDREN OF ETHNIC MINORITIES IN SOUTH WALES

Graham Howells
University of Wales, Swansea

Background

In general the position of the teaching of English as a Second Language (ESL) in the UK is similar to that of the USA. There are three major groups of incomers to both societies. First, both countries have encouraged immigration for economic purposes and have felt that incomers need linguistic support to be better assimilated into society and the workforce. As well as economic immigrants, both countries, with their liberal/democratic philosophies, have been seen has havens by a second group, political refugees or persons displaced by war - the asylum-seekers. A third element is the group we might term 'academic/transnational immigrants', who come to study in institutions of higher education or are posted here by transnational companies.

The three groups are also defined in length-of-stay terms: the first is probably here permanently, while the second may be here for a short or long period, depending upon political changes in the home countries. The third is usually a short-stay group, resident for the duration of a course, for writing a thesis or until the company sends them elsewhere. A peculiarly Welsh twist to the 'transnational immigrant' group is the high number of Japanese business executives in the region.

There is also an economic differentiation between the groups: the majority of the first group will be in the lower income levels although we are already seeing in some cases the classic process of re-migration into the leafy suburbs of those with the energy and determination to achieve this. Political refugees will be a mixed group ranging from the exiled politician with money invested in the City of London, through the middle class Middle Eastern intellectual who may or may not be receiving money from home, to the Somali peasant displaced by war whose teenage children may have never been to school before arriving here. The third group will, almost by definition, be relatively well-financed if the whole family is here; in many cases the parents have brought their children with the intention that the stay in Britain will produce children bilingual in English and the mother tongue. The case of the Japanese is in extreme contrast to the Somali refugee children; the former have been intensely schooled from an early age and, knowing that they will return home, the fear is that they will do so ill-equipped to re-enter the intensely competitive Japanese educational system. For this reason these children have language support in English in their local school and in Japanese through private arrangements.

From this brief survey it will be seen that there is a wide variety in the economic and educational backgrounds of ESL learners in our schools, as well as a wide variety of parental expectations. The US audience will possibly note the similarities with its domestic situation, but Welsh context of this question is one which, I believe, is not paralleled in North America unless perhaps we explore the Native American

experience. In Wales the Language Question refers to Welsh/English, not English/ other tongues. This leads to anomalous situations. For example, every morning the village milkman drops at my front door a publication that calls itself the national newspaper of Wales - The Western Mail. It is written entirely in English except for one or two token articles in Welsh. I read this paper, as do the majority of Welsh people, in my first language - English, while my cousins in West Wales read it in their second language - English.

Welsh identity

Here we have the fundamental problem of welshness and the basis of the advantage and the disadvantage that incomers have into our society. When the Welsh language or identity are maligned in any way there are calls for complaints to be made under the provisions of the Race Relations Act, but in what way are the Welsh racially different from the English?

(In parenthesis we may note that one of the more amusing ironies contained in English racism - unfortunately in resurgence at this time - is that the breadth and flexibility of thought that enabled the English to develop the commercial, industrial and military power to dominate the world for 200 years, and which the extreme right is so proud of, may well derive from the mongrel nature of the English 'race'. Shakespeare's French Dauphin calls Henry V's soldiers "bastard Normans, Norman bastards" and the bastards have continued both to multiply themselves and to draw ideas from incoming groups ever since.)

What differentiates the Welsh cultural background from the English at the present, and it is a difference that affects new ethnic minorities, is an upsurge in regionalism in Wales (and Scotland) that is political as much as cultural. Until the Thatcher years the major elements of cultural and political identity in Wales were those of heavy industry - coal, iron and a trade union culture. Now that the industries have almost entirely disappeared a new identity is being forged based on the Welsh language, which is regularly spoken by only about 10-20% of the population. Two major developments have given the language a great boost in recent years: its inclusion as a compulsory part of the National Curriculum for Wales and the founding of a Welsh language television channel, S4C. An interesting comparison between the situations of Welsh as a minority language in the UK and Spanish in the USA is given in Cohen (1984).

At this point it is, I hope, becoming clear that groups generally described as 'ethnic minorities' are, in Wales, minorities within a group that sees itself as an ethnic minority. In areas of England with high proportions of incomers, ESL is a high priority, but the Welsh have language priorities of their own that are seen as more pressing and, in relative terms, there are not high numbers of incomers in Wales who do not have English as a mother tongue. This is an advantage in the sense that school resources do not have to be diverted in a major way to deal with the question of second language instruction, but a disadvantage in that there is not an 'ESL culture' in Wales springing from the momentum that is generated when a significantly large group of professionals is found in an area, meeting and exchanging ideas. In general there is a tolerance towards incomers that derives from the sense of marginalisation in the

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

region, partly because South Wales in particular has a long tradition of seaport immigration, partly because of a historical sense of belonging to an ethnic minority.

In terms of educational provision, the relatively small numbers and the linguistic and social background give ESL in Wales a unique characteristic which takes advantage of the strong tradition of decentralisation in the British educational system.

The Changing Pattern of Immigration

Cardiff is the largest urban centre in Wales, and with its history as a nineteenth-century seaport exporting coal to the Empire, it has a tradition of hosting permanent immigrants as well as transient sailors that pre-dates the large-scale immigration of the 1950s and 1960s. The tightening-up of immigration controls in recent years means that most first-generation New Commonwealth immigrants have now moved through the educational system and that most school-age children of this group are genuinely bilingual in English and one or more other tongues. There is still a tendency in some cases for children to be taken back to the parents' country of origin for extended periods, which affects their language development as well as their general education. It is also true to say that, while large-scale economic immigration has slowed, it still provides some school-age clients, especially children of parents in the catering professions.

Pupils coming from groups one and two found mainly in three schools in Cardiff. The children of post-graduate students are of course scattered among the university towns - the majority in Cardiff, the rest in Swansea, Aberystwyth, Lampeter and Bangor. The children of business executives are spread equally thinly but mainly in South Wales, and in Cardiff they generally attend schools in the middle class areas, while in the smaller urban centre of Swansea the choice of schools is more restricted. There is literally one inner city school in the geographical centre of Swansea to which ESL pupils gravitate and this small group contains representatives of all three of the categories described above. Swansea's suburban schools have one or two children of the third, academic/transnational category.

The groups that are most affected by the policies of central government are recently arrived economic immigrants and the asylum-seekers. Some of these children have had no schooling at all before they came here, or an education which is rudimentary in British terms. At the moment the largest group in Cardiff schools, for reasons connected with the historical links already mentioned, consists of refugees from civil wars in Somalia and the Yemen. Some of the children have not used a chair or a pencil before coming to Britain, so the cultural adjustment necessary in every area of their lives is immense before they even begin to think about academic work. Another adjustment they have to make is that young people who have been responsible at a an early age for the family's wealth in caring for herds and crops, are suddenly turned into children. A person of twelve or fourteen years of age who has been doing the work of an adult (especially in families where older people may have been removed by conflict) is placed in a situation where s/he is unable to perform tasks that local five-year-olds can do effortlessly.

Even pupils who have received some education in their countries of origin find that the *nature* of their learning is not considered relevant here. In an agricultural Islamic society a child's world-view is far different from that which is expected from products of western education. During a period of teaching English to incoming children in one of the Cardiff schools mentioned above, I would finish a lesson with a simulated television quiz game the children were familiar with. From simple geography-based questions it became clear that several pupils had little idea of where they were in the world, either before or after coming to Britain. I was asked by a boy of about twelve: "Are we in America, Sir?"

Integration or Special Needs?

The problem illustrated above leads to a fundamental question in the education of children who have not come through the mainstream school system: should they be integrated into mainstream classes or given special help in segregated groups? The question leads straight into the minefield of political/racial correctness, but briefly described, the position in Britain has moved from one of separation to integration. When large numbers of children appeared in the schools who could not cope with the linguistic demands of the classroom, the obvious policy seemed to be to give them separate lessons until they were able to join the mainstream. The problems appeared when this policy was described as segregationist and thus discriminatory. There were also problems in that such units tended to be classed with the 'special educational needs' area of the school, to which those pupils are directed who have attained low scores on standardised tests of academic ability. The result was that 'ESL units' were supposed to wither away and incoming children were to be integrated into the mainstream as quickly as possible (Levine, 1990).

It requires little exercise of the imagination to envisage the results in the classroom of the arrival of five new pupils of differing educational backgrounds, speaking two or three different languages and little or no English. The 'integrationist' response is to employ support teachers, preferably speakers of the pupils' mother tongues (Khan, 1994). The reality is that the complete implementation of such a policy would be financially ruinous and in practical terms impossible: can we expect teaching to be effective when there are two or three assistants in the room explaining the content of a science lesson *sotto voce* to pupils who have never met this subject before? Kulkarni (1989) describes an interesting initiative in Lndon where language workshops were set up outside normal hours in order to provide specialised help for learners whose first language was not English. Such an approach needs financial resources and we shall see that there are problems with funding second langauge support. When the state has problems funding mainstream education, it is not surprising that second language learners find themselves at the back of the queue.

The policy that has emerged in South Wales is a pragmatic one in which *de facto* ESL units exist where there is a sufficiently large number of pupils to justify them. In these areas of the school pupils receive instruction in English and in subject-specific content that follows the National Curriculum. As soon as the pupils are deemed able to be inserted part-time into the mainstream they attend conventional lessons and one of the teachers from the 'unit' will provide as much in-class support as possible. The logistical and intellectual demands of this system are significant: the ESL teacher has to

switch from whole class to support work, to be able to explain concepts in many different disciplines and to employ personal skills with regard to colleagues who may or may not welcome an additional teacher in the lesson.

The number of staff needed to support such a system is a crucial factor and it is here that recent developments cast an ominous shadow over the future provision of ESL teaching. The situation detailed above clearly needs extra funding and one of the problems in the ESL area is that it is not funded by the Department for Education. The money to pay ESL teachers comes from the Home Office. The system was set up under which Local Education Authorities could request funds under Section 11 of the 1966 Local Government Act that enabled the Home Secretary to provide money to LEAs who, 'in his opinion are required to make special provision in the exercise of any of their functions in consequence of the presence in their areas of substantial numbers of immigrants from the Commonwealth whose language or customs differ from those of the community' (Home Office, 1994). As a result of this anomaly there is no provision in the national inspectorate for overseeing ESL teaching, nor does the latter figure significantly in the National Curriculum.

There seems to be a curious lack of interest in ESL within the Department for Education: according to a correspondent of The Times Educational Supplement

> Some projects are funded by the Home Office under Section 11; some now by the Department for the Environment under the banner of Single Regeneration Budget or City Challenge; some even from the Department of Employment by way of special training schemes. (Sofer, 1995)

The same writer points out that "well over £20 million a year is spent in the country's schools and colleges" on teaching English to children whose first language is not English, and yet there is little co-ordination of this effort. Teaching materials, for instance, are produced, if at all, by LEAs, schools or individual teachers. In a major university bookshop in London there are whole rooms of EFL textbooks, and one small shelf of books aimed at ESL.

Along with lack of organisation, another major problem is that Section 11 funding suffered large cuts in 1994, and in local schools one hears repeatedly comments like: "we are losing a point five teacher [i.e., the equivalent of half a full-time teacher] at the end of this year". Money has to be bid for by the LEA and the resulting funding covers a limited period of one, three or five years, so there is a permanent sense of insecurity among part-time support staff. These cuts do not yet affect South Wales, as the current grants are still in operation, and it will be interesting to see what happens in the future, as in England the funding will be further fragmented by dividing money between Section 11, under the Home Office, and the Single Regeneration Budget, under the Department for the Environment (Bangs, 1994). In Wales, I am informed orally by a Welsh Office representative, this division will not happen.

The potential results of this cutback are serious: although one can see the government's justification for it, stemming from the reduced numbers of economic immigrants as described earlier, there is also a clear need for continuing remedial education both in English and in general subjects if children of ethnic minorities are to compete on anything like equal terms for a place in a shrinking job market. Political uncertainty adds to the

problems; as well as a change in local government structure, we may well have a change of government in the near future and the role of the Local Educational Authorities is under question. One county authority in South Wales, predicting a fall in numbers of support teachers, is now trying to put in place structures for ESL teaching that will, it is hoped, survive any changes that may occur.

Teachers

We have mentioned the uncertainties of life as an ESL teacher, and one of the paradoxes of life in public service is that the less people are paid, the worse they are treated, the more dedicated they appear to be. This impression is confirmed by interviews with ESL support teachers in local schools. The degree of commitment is impressive, as is the level of competence among teachers who are often 'self-retrained' from other subject areas. Mention is frequently made of the difficulty teachers have in acquiring specialist certification in ESL, partly through lack of available in-service training funds, partly through lack of suitable courses.

There is an interesting difference between the Welsh situation and that in those parts of England where large numbers of ESL clients have attracted a politicised body of self-appointed advocates. As we have noted above, there exists in Wales a pragmatic policy of gradual integration which, as a local teacher explained in an interview, seems to be more helpful to learners who have arrived in Wales after spending time in English schools with a more robust integrationist policy. These pupils are described as being "demoralised" and welcoming the "safe haven" of a language unit where they are able to catch their breath for a while. Anyone who has worked in a foreign country will recognise the physical and mental exhaustion that results from operating constantly in another language, a problem often not recognised in our schools.

Materials

The most common response to questions about what materials are used in ESL classes in local schools is that an eclectic choice is made by the teachers from a variety of available books for English mother tongue speakers, together with some specialist materials and equipment developed in areas of the UK which have high concentrations of non-native English speakers. This is typical of the decentralised British approach to teaching and it is one of the major problems in ESL work. Mention has been made of the high degree of commitment on the part of teachers, and when one travels around different schools there is evidence of high-quality teaching aids developed or bought in by individual teachers. What is not in evidence in South Wales, however, is systematic co-operation between ESL specialist teachers. There are meetings at county level but the general picture is of schools developing their own policies, teaching methods and materials. This is an obvious area in which, in view of the cuts in funding, greater co-operation could result in more cost-effective production of teaching materials which mainstream publishers do not appear to be interested in producing.

My experience indicates a surprising lack of interest on the part of ESL teachers in the vast amount of specialist output produced by the EFL world. One of the problems with using English materials written for pupils with English as a mother tongue is that linguistically simplified texts are usually produced for younger age groups. On the other hand, the

financial consideration again comes into play here; textbooks produced for the EFL market are often quite expensive - it can cost £250,000 to produce a major EFL course, and this money must be earned back.

The Future

How may we project into the future the picture drawn here? We have a clientele that is shrinking in one area (the economic immigrants), but which may grow in the areas of asylum seekers and academic/transnationals. We do not yet know what will be the results of further integration into the European Union - for the moment the predicted free interchange of labour between countries does not seem to have materialised. Neither can we predict in terms of asylum-seekers the results of the return to Chinese rule of the colony of Hong Kong.

It is predicted that there will be a Labour government after the next elections in two years' time and although many Labour policies at the moment seem bent on imitating those of the Conservatives, it is not possible to say what will actually happen to education if Labour comes to power. What can be predicted is that, unless there is an improvement in the nation's ability to produce wealth, funding for all public education will continue to decrease. If that is the case, parents will use their increased power in the schools' boards of governors to demand the allocation of funds to majority needs. In Wales those majorities will not include ESL children.

Conclusion

In some ways the ethnic minority child in Wales has advantages in living in a society which is already attuned to the aim of genuine bilingualism. In other ways this is a disadvantage because the region's attention is turned mainly to its own language problems and its cultural identity. The question of how, in future years, incomers will be integrated into schools where their own language may be a third tongue and into a society where knowledge of Welsh may be a prerequisite for public sector jobs, remains for the moment unanswerable.

Afterword

Occasionally a benevolent deity smiles upon the writer of an academic paper by providing a topical up-date on the content and in this case on the morning of delivering this paper 'The Western Mail' newspaper gave in its lead story (in English) the information that "Councillors on the powerful new unitary authority for Carmarthenshire voted to harden up the job specification for the top job by scrapping an earlier decision that Welsh would be 'an advantage' to being 'essential'."(23/5/95) This move may be interpreted as disadvantageous to speakers of English as a second language yet, such is the volatility of the language situation in Wales that a week later (31/5/95) the same newspaper contained an article about the question of admitting children of non-Christian faiths into the Urdd Gobaith Cymru, a movement whose principal aim today is the revival of Welsh language and culture. This would indicate that the success of Welsh language teaching through the National Curriculum is producing Welsh speakers from the 'minority within the minority'.

References

Bangs, J. (1994) Funding for race equality in education: looking to the future. *Multicultural Teaching*, 13(1) 7-9,13

Cohen, G. (1984) The politics of bilingual education. *Oxford Review of Education*, 10(2) 225-241

Home Office (1994) Communication to Educational Authorities concerning applications for Section 11 funding. Ref. RW 2386A.

Khan, S. (1994) Bilingualism and the curriculum. *Multicultural Teaching*, 13(1) 17-21

Kulkarni, C. (1989) Language Support Workshops in ILEA: a brief survey and case study. *Language Issues*, 3(2) 18-22

Sofer, A. (1995) Second languages need to come first. *Times Educational Supplement*, 7th April, 1995

COOPERATIVE LEARNING IN THE WORKSHOP: INTEGRATING SOCIAL SKILLS, GROUP ROLES AND PROCESSING TO FACILITATE LEARNING IN THE INTEGRATED LANGUAGE ARTS CLASSROOM

Carol A. Kirk
University of Wisconsin-La Crosse

Introduction

The Human Growth unit in Lynne's first grade class of six and seven year-olds was drawing to a close. As a culminating experience, Lynne planned a cooperative activity which included a writing component. Afterwards, she reflected on the experience in her research diary.

> The cooperative triads worked well to extend thinking as we culminated the human growth unit. I created groups of three, making sure each one had a highly verbal child, separating the less mature children. I cut pictures of people into three sections and numbered them to correspond with the children I wanted in each group. I called the children up alphabetically and handed them their puzzle piece. I was worried that finding group members would take so long, we'd be out of time before the group work could begin. But it went surprisingly quickly. Then I told the children to look on the backs at their numbers. I told the children which numbers would be sharers, staplers, and organizers.
>
> The academic tasks were to organize the package of five pictures so that they went from baby to older adult in the order that we had studied them. Then the stapler stapled the correct picture under the correct heading on the bulletin board. The sharer task happened the next day, when teammates helped him or her think of a sentence for each picture that started, "Babies can...etc." I told them to think of something they didn't think the other groups would say, because if someone used their idea, they needed to think of another one.
>
> I told them I would be checking to see if they used each other's ideas and to see if they were kind to each other. I circulated, writing down examples. Once [in] awhile I had to intervene to get a group to include someone who deemed to be left out, or to get a group to generate more ideas when they seemed to be just sitting there. The ideas generated were truly outstanding. Occasionally group members had to whisper in the sharer's ear. "Look how they're helping," I'd say. In processing, the children indicated they liked working in groups where everyone had a special job, although someone said they would have liked to have been stapler.

I felt this was an example of a truly good use of cooperative groups, where the whole is greater than the sum of its parts.

Lynne's Human Growth unit illustrates how cooperative learning strategies can be integrated with language arts and thematic instruction to enhance meaningful learning. For two years, teachers at an elementary school, with the support and guidance of their principal and a collaborative support team of expert coaches, participated in a staff development project and related research study designed to help the school become a cooperative learning school - a school where cooperation would be emphasized at every grade level and across the curriculum. The school motto was, "We care about each other. We help each other learn."

Several teachers in the school requested expert coaches to assist them in using cooperative learning in their classrooms. The expert coaches, who were university professors and school district personnel, worked closely with the teachers to plan, observe, and discuss the outcomes of lessons using cooperative learning strategies. The emphasis during the first year was on the language arts, and teachers explored ways to connect reading, writing, speaking and listening through cooperative learning. During the second year, these teachers were encouraged to extend cooperative learning into at least one other subject area, and then into interdisciplinary thematic units. Pairs of peer coaches were formed among the teachers who were beginning their second year in the project. New teachers joined the project that year, also, and each had an expert coach.

This paper will examine connections that were made between cooperative learning and integrated language arts in terms of underlying principles and organizing frameworks. Lessons taught by Lynne (grade 1, six to seven year-olds), Jessie (grade 3, eight to nine year-olds), and Connie (grade 5, ten to eleven year-olds) illustrate these connections.

Lynne, Jessie and Connie volunteered to participate in a qualitative research study to track teacher change, monitor student attitude and observe the results of attempts to connect cooperative learning and integrated language arts. In addition to regular coaching activities, each of these teachers became the partner of a researcher who functioned as a participant observer in the classroom, taking careful notes, keeping records, and conducting teacher and student interviews. Each of the three teachers was also viewed as a researcher, keeping a diary and anecdotal records, and making available to the research team their lesson plans and coaching records. Their research diaries provide insight into the positive effects cooperative learning can have on attention, motivation, productivity, social interaction and learning when it is a central part of integrated language arts instruction.

Defining Cooperative Learning

According to Hill and Hill (1990), "a cooperative activity can be said to exist when two or more people are working together towards the same goal." Cooperative learning is based on the principle that learning is social and that cooperation leads to deeper understanding. Learning is viewed as an active process where individuals are given responsibility for their own learning and behavior. Through working together, children discover that learning can be enjoyable and positive and can promote

self-esteem, as well as giving a sense of belonging. "That working together to achieve a common goal produces higher achievement and greater productivity than does working alone is so well confirmed by so much research that it stands as one of the strongest principles of social and organizational psychology," according to Johnson, Johnson and Smith (1991).

Cooperative groups are different from the small group activities found in many classrooms. The difference is in the way groups are structured to ensure productive use of time and sharing to reach a common goal.

Major differences between cooperative groups and small groups include:

1. Positive interdependence is a central element of cooperative groups. The motto is, "We sink or swim together," and activities are designed to necessitate face-to-face oral interaction. In small groups, however, there is frequently no interdependence. Students often work on their own, perhaps checking their answers with other students from time to time.

2. The individual accountability built into cooperative lessons makes it necessary for each group member to master the material. In small groups, on the other hand, some students let others do the work or take charge to the exclusion of others.

3. Teachers who use cooperative groups teach the social skills needed for successful group work, whereas in small groups where only the task is emphasized, the lack of systematically taught social skills leads to ineffective communication and less time on task.

4. In cooperative groups, the leadership is shared; small groups tend to have one leader.

5. When cooperative groups are working, the teacher monitors students' behavior and intervenes when faulty learning is taking place. In small groups, there is often no direct observation of student behavior. The teacher often works with other students or prepares the next lesson, and some groups may socialize or argue the entire time without accomplishing much, if anything, of the academic task.

6. At natural breaks or the end of a day's work, the teacher takes time in cooperative lessons to process with students how well they are mastering social skills, whereas in small groups, there is no discussion of how well students worked together other than general comments like, "Nice job." or "Next time I want to see everyone participating." (Ellis and Whalen, 1990; Rottier and Ogan, 1991; Johnson, Johnson and Smith, 1991)

Cooperative learning includes both informal and formal structures. Informal structures can be used to focus student attention on material, create a mood conducive to learning, set expectations as to what will ensure that students cognitively process material, and provide closure to an instructional session (Johnson, Johnson and Smith, 1991). Informal cooperative learning is less structured than formal cooperative learning and tends to be used as a means to actively engage students in processing ideas and information being presented in teacher-directed lessons. One example of informal

structure is Turn to Your Partner, where the teacher sometimes asks students to work with another student right where they are sitting. This structure is often used to help students become actively engaged with information being presented in a teacher-directed lesson. Another example is Think, Pair, Share, a variation of Turn to Your Partner where students are asked to think about the question posed by the teacher, pair with a partner to discuss ideas and try to come to agreement, and then share their ideas with the whole class.

Formal cooperative learning involves highly structured lessons which include academic tasks, social skills, group roles, group interdependence and individual accountability. In formal cooperative lessons, the teacher shares control and decision making with the class, encouraging group initiatives, delegating responsibility to the class, and working toward the establishment of mutual goals. He/She also actively participates in class activities (Hill and Hill, 1990). Johnson, Johnson and Smith (1991) suggest that the teacher is not a sage on the stage, but a guide on the side who moves from covering the material for students to uncovering material with students. The students are responsible for functioning within assigned group roles and employing appropriate social skills to accomplish academic tasks. The teacher prepares students for this responsibility by structuring the learning groups, providing needed background for academic concepts, and modeling strategies which facilitate learning. He/She also assigns a task to be completed, monitors the groups, evaluates student learning, and guides the processing by learning groups of their effectiveness (Johnson, Johnson and Smith, 1991).

Defining Integrated Language Arts

Integrated Language Arts recognizes that language is learned best when the focus is on meaning (Goodman, 1986). Reading, writing, speaking and listening are integrated language processes which are learned and used in the pursuit of meaning (Atwell, 1987). Language is personal - driven from the inside by the need to communicate (Goodman, 1986), and social - a means for communicating between and among individuals. Therefore, children learn language by using language (Rhodes and Dudley-Marling, 1988). Motivation is always intrinsic. Language learning is an active process in pursuit of meaning. Readers, for example, construct meaning as they read and connect information from the text with their own prior knowledge and experience. Children take ownership of and responsibility for their learning. The teacher provides extended periods of time for actual reading and writing and gives frequent response to their reading and writing efforts.

Teachers who apply this holistic philosophy often organize language learning in the format of reading or writing workshops. "Workshop" is a framework for organizing time and instructional activity which usually includes mini-lessons, status of the class, extended periods of workshop time for reading and writing, and an opportunity to come back together for group sharing.

Mini-lessons are short (3 to 10 minute) lessons which focus on one key idea or concept which students need to know in order to learn. Several types of mini-lessons have been identified (See Calkins, 1995). Mini-lessons provide opportunities for large group direct instruction. The topics of mini-lessons are determined by children's need to

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

know rather than by a prescribed scope and sequence. The teacher observes children in the act of using language, determines what information is needed for the children to move forward in their learning and designs a mini-lesson to fulfill that need.

After the mini-lesson, the teacher may take the status of the class (Atwell, 1987). Each student indicates how he/she will use the workshop time. In addition to individual plans, choices may include peer conferences, authors' circles and other small group activities.

Workshop time, an extended period for individual and small group work, follows as students carry out their plans. For example, students may choose to read a book, write and publish a story, have a conference with a peer or teacher, or work on a project related to a book or books that he/she has read. When children choose to meet in small groups, they are often loosely structured as described earlier.

Finally, during group share time, students come back together as a group for sharing of ideas concerns or progress or for the opportunity to solicit response from the whole group or to share finished pieces of writing from the author's chair. The patterns of learning developed in workshop often expand to content areas and may be incorporated in thematic units.

The teacher in an integrated language arts classroom motivates, arranges the environment, monitors development, provides relevant and appropriate materials, and invites learners to participate in and plan literacy events and learning opportunities. The teacher guides, facilitates and assesses student progress (Goodman, 1986). Such teachers, "...know their pupils well and encourage them to collaborate with their peers" (p. 43).

Connections Between Cooperative Learning and Integrated Language Arts Workshops

Cooperative learning and reading or writing workshops have been thought of as separate models of classroom management. However, the principles and practices of cooperative learning and workshop are similar in number of ways which suggest that they could be integrated for the enhancement of learning.

Shared Principles

Most important, cooperative learning and integrated language arts are grounded in some of the same principles (See Table 1).

Table 1
Shared Principles of Cooperative Learning and Integrated Language Arts

Cooperative Learning	Integrated Language Arts
1. Learning is social	1. Learning is social
2. Learning is student centered	2. Learning is student centered
3. Learning is active.	3. Learning is active
4. Individuals are given responsibility for their own learning and behavior	4. Ownership and responsibility are central to learning
5. Learning can and should be enjoyable, be positive, and promote	5. Learning is affective, depending on attitude, interest, motivation self-esteem and the valuing of reading, writing, speaking and listening. Motivation is always intrinsic.
6. Teacher is a guide and facilitator.	6. Teacher is a guide and facilitator.

The social nature of learning is most critical to the integration of cooperative learning and integrated language arts. Doise and Mugny (1984) state that social interaction leads to more advanced cognitive development. Johnson, Maruyama, Johnson, Nelson and Skon, after analyzing 122 studies of cooperative learning to 1981, concluded that the achievement of students who had participated in cooperative learning was 80% greater than that of students in individual or competitive settings.

Similar Structures

The structural frameworks of cooperative learning and workshop share similarities which are illustrated in Table 2. In both, students begin the work period together in large group instruction. They then move into a period of individual or small group work, during which the teacher observes and assists as needed. Finally, students come back together near the end of the work period for some kind of sharing. Equally evident, cooperative learning lessons provide structure for group work, in particular, that otherwise may be missing in an integrated language arts workshop. The teaching and monitoring of social skills and group process and the processing of how groups have worked together are not typically part of the workshop structure. Lynne, Jessie and Connie were not only successful in utilizing the strengths of cooperative learning to enhance student learning in integrated language arts workshops; they also created innovative connections between cooperative learning and workshop.

Table 2
Characteristics of Structural Frameworks Associated with Cooperative Learning Lessons and Integrated Language Arts (ILA) Workshops

Cooperative Learning Lessons	ILA Workshops
Introduction Assigns the academic task. Teaches pertinent academic skills and strategies. Teaches pertinent.social skills. Teaches group roles. Establishes a time frame.	Mini-lesson Teaches language processes Teaches pertinent strategies Teaches procedures (e.g. how to have a peer conference). Status of the Class Clarifies individual and/or group academic tasks for the day.
Group Time Group (pairs or larger) work. Students practice social skills, use individual roles to achieve group goals.	Workshop Time Individual or group (pairs or larger) work. Typically, little or no instruction or practice in group process or social skills.
Presentation At the end of the group project, groups may present what they have learned to the class.	Group Share At the end of workshop time, individuals or groups share work in progress, completed writings, or what they learned from reading.
Processing Processing occurs at natural breaks as the teacher discusses with students how well they are working together.	Processing is not typically done.

Cooperative Learning in the Workshop: Lessons Which Integrate Cooperating Learning into Reading and Writing Workshops

Informal Cooperative Learning

Informal structures were easy to integrate into mini-lessons and later transferred readily into content area lessons. The most widely used strategy was Turn to Your Partner, though it went by different names in each classroom. In her class, Lynne frequently had the children sit "knee-to-knee." This strategy worked especially well for developing speaking and listening skills. Two examples follow, as related by Lynne in her diary:

> During DUSO time (oral language and listening is the goal here), after children told what their parent's favorite object was and why, "[they] sat knee-to-knee on the rug. I said to decide who would talk first and then that person raise hand....The talker got to tell about his/her favorite object (they had brought them to school) and the listener practiced the four ways to shw good listening.
>
> When the children went back into their "weather teams," formed for the weather unit, "I asked them to get knee-to-knee to discuss how they could "add on" [academic skill elaboration] to their drawings. I told them I would look for kind things said and kind things done [social skills].

Jessie asked her students to "talk over with the person next to you." For example, during a mini-lesson taught to ensure that children's stories had the necessary parts, Jessie placed a "sloppy copy" written by one of the children on the overhead projector, with her permission. She asked questions about the story structure such as, Who are the characters? The children talked over the answer with the person next to them. Jessie then used colored markers to correspond with the parts of the story on the board. The children looked at their own drafts to be sure they had the necessary story parts, using colored markers to correspond with the parts of the story on the board.

Connie frequently had students put their "heads together" for a variety of purposes. In her diary, she commented, "Practiced using heads together for retrieving answers. Works so slick. Kids feel more confident responding, too."

Another informal structure chosen often by these teachers is Think, Pair, Share - a variation of Turn to Your Partner. They used Think, Pair, Share when they wanted some or all of the pupils to share their ideas with the class. Some teachers extended the strategy to incorporate reading and writing into the structure.

Lynne used Think, Pair, Share to process a cooperative reading of *Caps for Sale* by Esphyr Slobodkina to help children assess their group work. She reflects in her diary:

> How their posture and facial expressions changed when they talked about what they liked about working with a group and then what they didn't like. I had them Think, Pair, and Share it. I absolutely vetoed any mention of specific names. That worked well.

Connie's students began charting the explorers they met in social studies. Students were to cooperatively read about an explorer, think about what they had read, write what they wanted to put on their chart, and then share this with the rest of the class. Connie commented that, "It was easy to get more oral participation."

Connie and her coach, Carol, created another version of this informal structure - Think, Write, Pair Share, Group Share, Think. The structure was part of a mini-lesson on narrowing a writing topic. The children, seated in clusters of four desks, first learned how to use a graphic organizer to show hierarchical relationships and how to

narrow enough. They then worked with the topic they had chosen during the previous mini-lesson. Carol described the process:

> Think - What do you know about the topic? Can this topic be broken down into subtopics? What are they?
>
> Write - Write down some things you could include in a story on this topic. Is there still too much information? Or is there enough information about the topic to develop a story?
>
> Pair share - Turn to one partner in your cluster and share what you have written. Listen to your partner's response and decide whether to revise your topic further.
>
> Group share - The two pairs join into a group of four to overview each person's writing plan, keeping the focus questions in mind. Each person in the group responds to each plan according to response guidelines learned earlier.
>
> Think - Think about the response you received and decide what and how you will write.

Carol wrote, "...the thinking at the end is a crucial addition with writing. The author must go back inside himself/herself to help internalize responses or ideas and make decisions about what to do next." Jessie used a similar Share, Read, Write, Think approach to developing classroom rules.

Finally, Lynne taught a cooperative mini-lesson using role playing to help children develop classroom rules through speaking and listening. Though it was difficult for young children to think up ways to show rules, they were able to do so with the clear expectations set by the teacher. During processing, Lynne asked, "What did you like about working with a partner?" Comments included: More ideas; Nice; My partner listened to me; He didn't make me do it his way; I didn't even have to talk; and When you are both smart, you get good ideas. Lynne decided to find more opportunities for role play with specific, pre-planned examples, such as deciding on one idea.

Informal structures provided a good first step into cooperative learning. As teachers became comfortable using them, they began to develop more formal cooperative lessons.

Formal Cooperative Learning

The teachers discovered a number of ways to integrate formal cooperative learning structures with integrated language arts. Lessons lasted from half an hour to several days. A few selected examples follow.

Lynne integrated reading, writing, speaking and listening skills into preparation for a visit by the town chairperson. She continued the cooperative process through his visit and followup, as described in her diary:

> The children had sheets with starter words: Who, What, Where, When and How. I had already designated one person in each group as recorder, one as questioner, and one as contributor. The academic task was to write a question starting with each word and to make sure the questioner would be able to read them to Mr. Brudos. The social task was to share ideas. We did a T chart [looks like; sounds like] to review how to do this. The results were quite good. In processing I asked the children if this would have been easier to do alone. Emphatic "No." This is another one of those activities where groups extend ideas.I picked one good question from each group and wrote it on chart paper. Before Mr. Brudos came, the groups met briefly to make sure the questioner could read the question. They lined up, group by group, if the questioner could read the question. Mr. Brudos answered the questions well...I think had he not let them guide what he had to say, his comments could have gone over the first graders' heads.There was time for some spontaneous questions, and I was pleased to note that the children actually asked questions (instead of telling stories). At unit time, the children got back in groups. The questioner was to read their question again, and the contributor was to say what Mr. Brudos' answer was.

Later, Lynne integrated formal cooperative structure with Book Buddies, an adaptation of reading workshop lasted several weeks. Lynne recounts how Book Buddies worked:

> Each child will choose a Book Buddy. I will call on the children least likely to be picked to choose. We will practice the social skill of making someone feel happy they chose you. The Book Buddies will pick two books dealing with the topic of friendship. Then their academic task is to decide how they will read the books (e.g. take turns, one read, one listen, etc.) We'll process this activity by having children share their decisions and how they felt about making them. Then, the children will read. When done, they will work cooperatively on the activity: Make a valentine for one of the characters; or make a Wanted Poster describing one of the characters and why they want him/her for a friend; or design a project of their own with help from me. When done, they will conference individually with an adult who will use conference slips asking questions about title, plot, characters and why or why not [the] child liked the book.

THEN children can pick a new Book Buddy. Each child has a folder in which titles and conference slips are kept.

As a culminating activity for the Civil War Unit, Connie, Carol and Ken (Connie's fifth grade colleague) planned activities for six cooperative groups. Carol describes the plan:

March 27 - Connie explained the groups for projects and what each would be doing. She asked the students to list three groups they'd like to be. If a person would be gone, he/she could give the list to Connie.
March 28 - A student drew names from a box. When a name was called, the person chose a group where there was an open spot. His/her name was written on a chart.
April 2 - The groups met. Each group got one task sheet. Groups were to appoint managers (like facilitators) to make sure everyone in the group understood the task. Connie and I met briefly with the groups to get them started.

Each group then assigned additional roles among its members which were determined by the nature of the task to be completed. At the end of the unit, each group was to present what it had learned in some way. This presentation became an assessment.

Cooperative Assessment

Teachers in both cooperative classrooms and workshops are responsible for the assessment of student learning. The strong emphasis on sharing in both cooperative learning and workshops led all three teachers to develop cooperative learning activities for assessment. The teacher and the students shared responsibility for assessment. Cooperative assessment structures emerged several months into the project and so were often developed as teachers extended cooperative learning and integrated language arts into content area lessons and thematic units.

Cooperative assessments took three forms: 1) children's assessments of how their groups worked were included in the processing at the end of the workshop or lesson; 2) Students were asked to summarize units cooperatively; and 3) Students participated in cooperative performances which were then assessed in a variety of ways.

Cooperative Assessment During Processing

In Lynne's classroom, the children worked in pairs to research some aspect of water in which they were interested. Lynne observed:

When they processed what they had done (writing little faces on a piece of paper), almost everyone indicated satisfaction with the outcome even though some indicated 'fights' in the beginning over who would do what. I took a minute to reassure them that was often part of learning how to work together.

During a unit about animals children gave a thumbs up to indicate that they agreed. "Brian did not give a thumbs up....'Put your thumb up,' Nikki pressured. He remained firm. He explained that she asked Kelley what a primary consumer was, not him," Lynne wrote.

> Including self-assessment in processing allowed these children to see themselves as members of a group with responsibility for individual behavior in group work.

Assessment through Summarization

Jessie and Connie both found it useful to have students cooperatively summarize what they had learned. Jessie employed this strategy with students at the end of a unit on Antarctica. The academic task of the lesson was for each group to make a word web of things they had learned about Antarctica. Jessie wrote:

> Each group had one large piece of newsprint and a different colored marker per person. They had to web as many facts as they could. The group would get one grade and each person in the group would get a separate grade, that's why they wrote in different colors.

Connie put her students in random groups. She reported:

> Their task was to list all they learned about the ancient Indian cultures of North America. Each student used a different color pen to record their responses. After all groups exhausted their memories, each child signed their name in the color in which they wrote.
>
> I will be able to evaluate the concepts learned and the success of individual group members.

The grading of the group products made the summarization process a kind of quiz. Assigning grades is not compatible with current paradigms of learning, but is still common practice in most classrooms.

Performance Assessment

Performance assessment is found frequently in student-centered, meaning-centered classrooms. Students demonstrate what they have learned through purposeful activity. For example, a student in a writing workshop might read his/her published story to the class from the author's chair, or a student in a reading workshop might create and display a shoebox diorama depicting a key episode in a novel. The teacher would then assess learning by observing the student's ability to apply what he/she has learned as presented in final performances and products. Jessie and Connie, with their coaches, designed cooperative performance assessments where cooperative groups were responsible for demonstrating their learning through collaborative projects or presentations.

Jessie developed a two-part assessment for a health unit. Kathie, her coach, reported:

> Part I consisted of pairs of students tracing the outline of one of the students and then labeling the inner organs and digestive track. These are all displayed in the hallways now. The second part was a creative writing activity, RAFT, where students were to pretend they were a piece food going through the digestive system.
> She gave them each a letter grade in two categories: health and language.

> In a literature-based unit on *The Long Winter* by Laura Ingalls Wilder, a historical account of pioneer life in midwest America during the 1800's, Connie incorporated several cooperative activities. She developed a formal cooperative activity at the end of the unit which served as a peformance assessment of student learning. Students in cooperative groups wrote their own pioneer newspapers which focused on episodes from the book. Connie explained the lesson:

> February 18 - The students were to create a cooperative newspaper on a half of tagboard using computer skills, editing skills, and information gained throughout the novel. We discussed the 5 W's (who, what why, when and where.)
> The groups were to be sure to divide all labor and encourage all members to participate. All group members were reporters, submitting an article(s). Roles were assigned by sequencing their birthdates. (Roles: editor, photographer, printer, lay out manager)
> The groups busily brainstormed ideas for newspaper additions. They assigned responsibilities to be done individually for now.
> A newspaper name was decided this day, too.
> February 22 - Newspaper groups edited each other's articles and some groups took the articles to computer class to type. One group opted to use manuscript.
> February 25 - The cooperative groups started laying out their newspaper page, putting on the paper's name and deciding what photographs should be included.

When the newspapers were completed, Connie reflected:

> I felt our newspaper project was a huge success. All members cooperated willingly and were extremely proud of their work. We processed our project by sharing the project with each other and putting them on display in the hallway.

With Connie's guidance, students reflected as they worked, thus adding an element of self-assessment to the newspaper activity. Connie visited each and asked a series of questions such as, Who's responsible for finishing the masthead? Are you all agreed on how to lay it out? Did two people read each article before it was printed? Do you know what the headline will be? What's going to go here? When you're done, put your names on it. This looks pretty well organized. Do you have any questions or concerns before you begin to glue?

Connie expanded cooperative assessment to include multiple measures by the teacher, peers, and individual students in a Civil War unit. Following traditional textbook instruction, students chose from among six topics and worked in topic-based cooperative groups for two weeks. Each group chose a way to present what they had learned to the class. Connie reports:

> "After each group presented their project, they evaluated their work as a group and the class also evaluated the presentation. This information was shared when the students and I conferred for a group grade. Individually, each student responded to a set of prepared questions about the entire Civil War project.

One day following the presentations, Connie gave a cooperative examination on the unit. Each student had to complete an examination, but group members could help each other. The examination, therefore, was also a learning experience.

Cooperative assessment during processing, through summarization, and through group performance helps students learn and reflect on learning together.

Concluding Remarks

The teachers and coaches involved in the cooperative learning/integrated language arts project embraced the discoveries and connections they had made. Integrating cooperative learning and integrated language arts benefitted the teaching and learning which occured as the strengths of each structure complemented the other. Among the observations teachers made were that children had better peer conferences after learning to share with one another; even first graders were able to summarize, do library research with the help of a parent, and write paragraphs focused around a topic; and students behaved and talked differently, took more responsibility for their learning and did higher quality work. Two teachers realized that, without being aware of it at the time, they had begun using cooperative learning daily in almost everything they did. They had internalized the structures and begun to "think cooperatively".

As the research team continues to analyze data from the study, other questions will be addressed:

1. What is the process of change as teachers implement cooperative learning strategies and an integrated language arts curriculum?
2. Does a pattern emerge as change is implemented?
3. What changes occur in children's attitudes and perceptions about reading, writing, and working together?

Meanwhile, the teachers' final reflections demonstrate that they feel they are headed in the right direction. Lynne wrote:

> What a glorious year....I could say already in March that I had achieved the goals I strived for: that the children would love to read,

love to write, and care about each other. That happened and an explosion of academic mastery.

Kim, who was chosen by James to help him edit his animal report (barely readable), said, 'Thank-you' to him for choosing her and went at his work with gusto. When it was done, it was still hard to decipher, but she had made a star at the top and had written the word, 'purfek'. And I would say that about this year, too. I'm on a journey, and the path beneath my feet feels 'purfek'.

Connie stated emphatically, "Holistically, looking at the whole program, I would never go back to teaching the other way. Never!"

References

Atwell, N. (1987). *In the middle*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Calkins, L. M. (1995). *The art of teaching writing*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Ellis, S. S. & Whalen, S. F. (1990). *Cooperative learning: Getting started.* NY: Scholastic.

Goodman, K. (1986). *What's whole in whole language*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Hill, S. & Hill, T. (1990). *The collaborative classroom: A guide to cooperative learning*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Smith, Karl A. (1991). *Active learning*. Edina, MN: Interaction Book Company.

Johnson, D. W., Maruyama, G., Nelson, D., & Skon. (1981). Effects of cooperative, competitive & individualistic goal structures on achievement: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 89, 47-62.

Rhodes, L. & Marling, C. D. (1988). *Readers and writers with a difference*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Rottier, J. & Ogan, Beverly J. (1991). *Cooperative learning in middle-level schools*. Washington, DC: National Education Association.

Slobodkina, E. (1987). *Caps for sale*. NY: Harper Collins Children's Books.

Wilder, Laura Ingalls. (1961). *The Long Winter*. NY: Harper Collins Children's Books.

ISSUES AND CONCERNS: MEETING NEEDS OF TEACHERS WHO WORK WITH AT-RISK YOUTH

Bob Krajewski
University of Wisconsin La Crosse

We shape our future by what we do in our schools today. A February 1995 issue of *Chicago Tribune Magazine* "A Tale of Two Schools: Separate- But Equal?" profiles and compares two Chicago area high schools (pp. 14-25). The first is 100% black student enrollment DuSable (D) High School, located on South State and Wabash Streets adjacent to the 16-story Robert Taylor Homes, perhaps the most impoverished urban misery in the United States. The second is 86% white and 11% Asian student enrollment New Trier (NT) High School, a small, beautiful Ivy League college type campus located 25 miles north of Chicago in Winnetka, contiguous to areas with $500,000 homes. Table 1 shows some facts and comparisons of the two schools.

Table 1

	D	NT
Average/capita income in enrollment area	$5K	$62K+
Dollars spent/student/year	$6K	$12K 90% local taxes
Teacher salary	xx	$25K+xx
Mean ACT composite score	14.1	25.2 = highest 1% in US
Varsity sports	7	27, with 60 state team titles
Football	24 blocks from school, practice area at school has many holes, gunfire occurs often	45 players; powerhouse
Atmosphere	custodian spends 8 hours on Monday cleaning trash from athletic field	
Performing arts	0	many
Parental involvement	0	too many; they intimidate teachers and administrators
Attendance	50% drop out	all graduate
College attendees	handful	96%
District	1 of 554 schools run by Chicago Board of Education	1 school, 1 principal, 1 Superintendent, 1 Board of Education
Gangs	Black Disciples or Gangster Disciples recruit in school. Use codes of streets, no metal detectors	None, but have drugs, alcohol, sex, two parent suicide cases, 70 crisis interventions
Communication	student newspaper: yearbook has 89 student pictures from graduating class. Police view it regularly to identify suspects	
Social workers	2 plus part time psychologist	7 plus full time psychologist
Standards	any student born after Sept. 1979 can attend, regardless of prior schooling Students need immediate gratification	students come excited to learn parents expect Ivy League placement
Principal	doctorate, PDK Educator of Year, Coalition of Essential Schools. Says role similar to small town principal, need to be more caring place. Personal attachment to students/ parents/community	doctorate, teaches, understands community. Soft toughness, and thus makes faculty wary
Supervision	Union makes decisions, moves teachers Principal has no control over staff	principal can remediate, and/or recommend termination

In a March issue of *Chicago Tribune* magazine (pp. 12-20) appears "Faith, Hope, and Scholarship," a report on St. Ignatius College Prep, a 125-year-old Jesuit inner-city high school that educates children of Chicago's rich and poor families by demanding hard work and encouraging good works. St. Ignatius leads individuals to discover their own sense of self-worth by making them see and respect worthiness of others. Tuition is $5,290 per year. Kids know they belong to a community, that people know them and care about them. Parental involvement is crucial, along with parental support of teachers. Religion, ethics, and morality are never far from the surface. At St. Ignatius, there is a sense of communal effort, where teachers, students and parents are working together for a common goal.

Although I lived in an industrial south suburb of Chicago, my high school days 40 years ago were spent in the inner-city. Two grade school friends and I chose to not attend the high school in our community, but rather applied to, were accepted by, and graduated from one of the most rigorous college prep high schools in Chicago. Each morning and evening we spent 50 minutes commuting on the Illinois Central train to attend a parochial high school in a rapidly deteriorating area of Chicago that was home to the infamous "Blackstone Rangers." The school was immediately adjacent to the elevated train station, yet we did not feel safe walking around there, especially during dark winter hours when we participated in after-school activities. That area today, and the one surrounding DuSable, remain a focus of negative press. The May 6, 1995 *Chicago Tribune* reports, for example, that the number of children being killed in the metropolitan area continues to increase at an alarming rate. The 30th child to be murdered in the Chicago area in 1995 died on April 16 (pp. 1,9), and the problem is that many murders and other acts of violence against young people are committed by other young people.

Not surprising, says "Dean of Death" James Fox. Television and movie violence seem commonplace for kids - especially that which shows the consequence of violence. Kids will rent these violence-prone movies and play the most violent scenes over and over until they become desensitized to the actions they are viewing. "What do you think the effect on a young kid is when his first exposure to sex is a brutal rape scene?" That is a very powerful image." Further, he says there has been a pervasive disinvestment in American youth during the last 30 years-negative forces such as drugs, gangs, movies, guns, and television have grown more powerful as the positive forces of family, church, community, and school have grown weaker. Too many kids are unsocialized and unsupervised. (*USA Today*, April 11, 1995, pp. 1,2).

It is much harder to grow up today than it was when we were in our formative years. According to the Children's Defense Fund (1994), each day in America 13 children die from shooting and 30 are wounded by guns, 5314 children are arrested, and 1,200,000 elementary-aged, latchkey children have access to guns in their homes. So children with guns and drugs, teenage mothers who can't cope with their babies, and futureless unwed boyfriends and fathers put other children at risk. And they don't care. The threat of long-term jail sentences means nothing to many of them because they don't expect to see their 21st birthday anyway. They witness too much violence, and see many of their friends die.

Michael Suntag (1995) asks candidly, "When parents have to let their kids sleep in bathtubs to protect them from bullets, when kids are locked in schools during the day and apartments at night, what remains of childhood, fairy tales, and dreams for the future?" And more important, what kinds of adults will these "man-children" and "woman-children" become? (p. 7). Terrifying possibilities, I'd say.

What is the answer then? Should we consider escaping from the urban area to an area like La Crosse Wisconsin, a quiet city of 55,000 population on the banks of the Mississippi River? Let's look a bit closer. Recent *La Crosse Tribune* articles address what many area parents are afraid to hear - that is, there's trouble right here in River City too. Based on arrest records and interviews, the La Crosse Police Department has identified 28 active gangs in the area, including Gangster Disciples, Vice Lords, Black P Stone Rangers, Imperial Kings, and the like (March 19, 1995 p. A-10). Kids make videos of the beatings during gang initiation rites, and then view them for confidence before they embark on some of their negative activities as burglaries, armed robbery attempts, criminal damage to property, sexual assault, intimidation, battery, and auto theft (pp. B-2, C-1).

La Crosse's Circuit Judge Peter Pappas, for example, observes that in many instances when young people come into the juvenile court it's simply a laughing matter to them. They know consequences for negative behavior are slight and time-delayed. (March 19, p. B-4). In the December 1994 *School Board Journal* Assistant Editor Bushweller notes that of the 250 judges (who hear juvenile cases) surveyed in a *National Law Journal* poll, 26% cite single parent/family breakdown as the No. 1 contributor to violence by kids, drug abuse (21%) No. 2 contributor, followed respectively by unemployment (17%), poor housing (15%), and poor education (7%) (pp. A8-A11). And so it appears that semi-rural La Crosse, like many other areas its size, suffers from similar ills as found in urban areas.

Well, what about escaping to a more rural area then? Unfortunately Utopia is not to be found there either. The U.S. Department of Education's *The Condition of Education in Rural Schools*, reports in 1994 that many rural citizens are ill-prepared to meet the challenges of the modern economy. Rural America has significant levels of poverty, older citizens remain comparatively poorly educated, students have less opportunity to continue their education, and the young and well-educated are departing (p. 3). Rural culture is being eroded by a number of forces as diminished political influence at state and national levels (Bailey et al., 1992), unemployment, inferior or nonexistent health care facilities and social services, and malnutrition (Sherman, 1992). Thus much of Rural America is faced with underfunded schools, declining enrollments, aging facilities, limited curricula, and persistent pockets of functional illiteracy (Bailey et al., 1992).

The mid 1980s Depression affected rural areas hardest in the Midwest. Jobs lost in farming, farm machinery manufacturing, construction, and telephone communications paid twice as much as the type of replacement jobs people were able to obtain, such as working in restaurants and bars, retail trade, and some nursing and personal care jobs. Too, many of these replacement jobs are part-time without benefits, and require travel time. Therefore underemployment is a reality. It is typical to see a young rural family

holding two or more jobs paying minimum wage, with the place of employment perhaps being 20 or more miles away from their home. For many rural families, then the result is a great deal of stress, no time for family, recreational, or school activities. The problem becomes even more acute if the young family does have children.

Historically, family, church, and school have shaped community identities. In the latter part of this century, however, and increasingly so in the past decade, community cohesiveness has diminished. Current diversity of communities necessitates a community development approach to solving problems. In the Midwest Regional Center for Drug Free Schools' *Perspectives on Violence and Substance Use in Rural America*, Donnermeyer (1994) notes:

- there is little difference in rural-urban use of alcohol, and further,
- rural/non-metropolitan 12th graders are more at risk because of using alcohol when driving
- rural marijuana use, especially by adolescents, is only slightly lower than urban use
- rural youth use of certain hard drugs as inhalants and stimulants is higher
- urban youth have higher usage for cocaine and cocaine derivatives-heroin and LSD
- rural youth is experiencing crime at levels and ways similar to city and suburb youth

In many respects Rural America faces same or similar problems as does urban, suburban, and small-city America. As we witness the decline of influence in church and family, one thing we know for sure about Rural/Urban/Suburban America is that school is the hub. It's common for everybody. What's needed is knowledge-based economic and community development. Education in all three areas has to be tailored to meet local needs, circumstances, constraints, and opportunities. Education must incorporate both traditional and nontraditional, and it must be continual. Furthermore, there must be a more informed local leadership in both education and community. Most important, education services must be collaborative among all providers as well as among current and future consumers.

Thus far, then, we know that problems in urban, suburban, small-city, and rural areas affect our schools' students and put them at risk of losing opportunity to become competent members of adult society, at risk of not making successful transitions to productive lives. We can't afford to continue to let this happen.

In August 1981, then Commissioner of U.S. Department of Education Terrel Bell established a National Commission on Excellence in Education, to focus public attention on schools and colleges, thereby making it politically difficult for national government to diminish the federal role in education. Asked to study the quality of American education, the 18 distinguished members of their Commission, chaired by University of California president David Gardner, released its *Nation at Risk* report at the White House in April 1993. The report stirred up a prolonged period of "splendid misery" for American education, as quick-fix reform, restructure, America 2000, on-site management/decision making, and school-corporate partnership efforts became wide-spread. These top-down efforts, Mr. Bell concludes, were mostly ineffective

because they dealt with schools--a symptom - rather than with the cause - first the home support, then the community interest. In his reflections in the April 1993 *Phi Delta Kappan*, on the 10th anniversary of the report, he states that parents, homes, and communities - indeed the total culture - must be transformed to nurture learning both inside and outside the school. He offers eight imperatives to be addressed if school reform goals are to be realized:

-make computers and other technology available in the areas they are needed most - the classroom - and provide teachers and students full access to their potential
-bring school staffing patterns into the modern era
-encourage a larger national role
-enhance the private school role
-pay more attention to the home
-downsize secondary schools
-hire outstanding school leaders and teachers-as-leaders
-use brain research studies (pp. 592-597)

Of the eight imperatives, I wish to explicate and correlate two in this paper, parent involvement and brain research. Mr. Bell emphasized that without parents' full support, education can't succeed. Home influence is crucial. Mr. Bell even suggests that state laws should require that parents pledge their support as a requirement for their children to enter and remain in school. I would concur. School affects approximately 25% of a child's day, and the remaining 75% is directly affected by parents' expectations and actions. Parent education and involvement programs must become routinized. Those programs should alert parents to the importance of early intervention in their children's learning. The brain grows rapidly during a child's early years, thus the child's mind must be stimulated. Parents and others should learn to become "incidental teachers," informal models of behavior and learning in everyday situations where children learn from watching and imitating them. Schools, in turn, must help parents and others become incidental learners and models.

How do we define At-Risk? How might we identify At-Risk students? There are, of course, many definitions, and many methods to identify At-Risk students. Milwaukee Public Schools says "Children at risk" means pupils in grades five to twelve who are one or more years behind their age group in the number of high school credits attained or two or more years behind their age group in basic skill levels, and are also one or more of the following:

1. Dropouts
2. Habitual truants, as defined in state of Wisconsin code
3. Parents
4. Adjudicated delinquents (p. 4).

Anderson and White (1995) present Fayette County Georgia's four areas of factors in identifying at-risk students:

1. school-related factors, including academic performance, attitudes and behavior (as apathy, short attention, disorganized, discipline referrals, inappropriate behavior, and victimizes/is victim), and attendance,
2. social/environmental factors, including low self-esteem, narrow interest range, lack of social skills, fear of failure, loner, dependent, inability to get along with others, and inability to face pressure,
3. health and physical factors, including poor balance, tired, slurred speech, physical complaints, pregnancy, physical injuries, changes in dress/hygiene/weight, and slurred speech, and
4. family factors, including socio-economic class, single-parent, step-parents, married student, has children of own, foster home, and the like (1995, p. 3).

In its student referral form, the County of Gary (Indiana) has similar items listed.

Elliott's *Rural Students at Risk* (1988), and Willis's *Students at Risk* (1987), publications for The North Central Regional Educational Laboratory (NCREL) discuss at-risk conditions, circumstances, and educational implications. The conditions include school dropouts, teenage parents, low-performing students, truants, runaways, substance abusers, non-involved in activities, behavior problems, young offenders, abused, the poor, the neglected, the isolated, and those with poor attitude. Students' fears, aspirations, and knowledge (or lack) of cultural diversity all contribute to those conditions. The circumstance equates student at risk with that student's family at risk. Circumstances include family structure, poverty, race and ethnicity, residence, language, gender, boys' self destructive behavior (suicide, car accidents, prison, drinking, smoking, taking drugs (Bushweller, 1994 pp. 20-24), and economic displacement.

Peter Benson, president of Search Institute in Minneapolis, says "at-risk" is defined in nine domains which potentially limit psychological, physical, or economic well-being during adolescence or adulthood. The domains include: alcohol, tobacco, illicit drugs, sexuality, depression/suicide, anti-social behavior, school, vehicle safety, and other. Indicator behaviors within those domains include frequent alcohol use, binge drinking, daily cigarette use, frequent chewing tobacco use, frequent use of illicit drugs, sexually active, non-use of contraceptives, depression, attempted suicide, vandalism, group fighting, police trouble, theft, weapon use, school absenteeism, desire to drop out, driving and drinking, riding and drinking, seat belt non-use, and bulimia (1995, pp. 6,7).

Lew Griner (1995) reports that Savannah (Georgia) screens and selects students to their two year, at-risk program for ninth graders two or more years behind in their grade level in their school system according to the following criteria:

1. Deficiencies in basic skills
2. Retained two or more times
3. "Turned off" in school
4. Low motivation and low social skills

5. Deficiencies in work readiness skills
6. Entry age: minimum-16 years
7. Test on the TABE at the sixth grade reading level
8. Not eligible to complete GED prior to normal graduating class
9. Not eligible for a Special Education Program (pp. 2,3)

The Rockland (NY) County Board of Cooperative Educational Services (BOCES) conceived and developed the Rockland Academy in 1993 as an alternative model to raise motivation, academic achievement, and self-esteem. Administrators, counselors, teachers, social workers, and psychologist review candidates' profile in these areas:

1. Low academic performance, but has potential
2. Not motivated or disaffected for school academic and social activities
3. Ongoing attendance problem
4. Understands how to behave but doesn't/can't in traditional school setting
5. Has conflicts not attributed to an inability to relate to peers or adults
6. Socially maladjusted behavior not consistent enough to be inappropriate under 'normal circumstances'

The above examples correlate well in their explanations/definitions of at-risk behaviors and domains. Now that we have a definition of at-risk behaviors and have identified the at-risk student, two things must yet be covered in this paper, namely (1) how do better meet the needs of the at-risk student, and (2) how do we better meet needs of teachers who work with at-risk students.

To discuss better meeting student needs, we begin with programs offered by the five examples listed above. In Milwaukee, at-risk programs are classified as alternative programs. In implementing the at-risk plan, schools are responsible for:

1. identifying programs, services, and activities for at-risk children in the school
2. identifying children enrolled in the school who are at-risk, determine which are not presently participating in an approved at-risk program, and develop a program for them.
3. notifying parents/guardians
4. maintaining records, with specific attention to at-risk criteria status and changes

In Fayetteville's (Georgia) program for 9th and 10th graders at-risk, students are grouped heterogeneously, and in a 3-hour time block for flexible, cross-curriculum instruction in math, science, and English. Early in the year, students read stories of statewide kindergarten winners in writing, then share the stories with Fayette kindergartners and first graders, lead them in writing/vocabulary activities, and eventually write and present original stories that feature each elementary child as the main character, thus becoming a published author. Students also write an autobiographical scrapbook, have specific writing responsibilities for the high school newspaper, produce a literary dictionary, complete a research review, and do descriptive writing.

In *Rural Students at Risk* (1988), Elliott suggests that at a minimum rural schools must provide the students improved personal and career counseling, and inter-district cooperation to provide adequate school programs and curriculum. Guidance counselors must assure that students have an accurate picture of the qualities, skills, and abilities needed to become productive members of society. Further, schools must provide parent education and insure school-community collaboration to maximize the use of scarce rural resources (p. 19).

In *Students at Risk* (1987) Willis's educational implications include early diagnosis and intervention, restructure primary education into teams (teachers, aides, volunteers, and parents) and/or subject matter specialists, more academic rigor and expectations, better teaching and supervision, curricular integration, and parent/community involvement (pp. 18-29)

Benson lists 30 personal assets that protect youth from at-risk behaviors, places them in the following categories: support, control, structured time use, educational commitment, positive values, and social competence, and provides recommendations for parents , educators, community leaders, religious organizations, businesses, and government. Recommendations for educators include:

1. personalize the school so students feel cared for, supported, and important
2. enhance social competencies for students
3. emphasize development of positive values
4. offer quality prevention programming
5. enhance academic effectiveness
6. emphasize service learning programs
7. provide strong support services

Griner notes that Savannah's program for 9th and 10th graders uses the U.S. BASICS (CCP) learning system with an added occupational preparation component, and identifies it as Optional Program with Training. An accelerated program for at-risk students performing at the grade levels 5-7, it consists of two components:

1. the OPT lab designed for students to develop skills and knowledge necessary to pass the High School General Education Development (GED) Test. Students attend the lab for three periods, spending one hour in each of Communications-History, Math-Science, and Life Skills.
2. a two year Occupational Cluster designed to prepare students with the skills, knowledge, and attitudes necessary for entry level employment in the job market.

Rockland Academy has only 18 students, and its mission is "all children can learn." Students are selected by those already enrolled. Each student has a learning plan, teaching is interdisciplinary, personal caring is integral to the curriculum, rich academics and strong counseling shape the program, and learning styles are considered for all students. Students sign a contract, parents commit to the mission, and students and staff formally and informally assess the programs (Griner, 1995, pp. 2-3).

Enzor and Osborne (1994) recommend that schools should: be aware of at-risk students' career development, and thus assess their attitudes, knowledge, skills, interests, feelings, and values; provide students with access to and instruction in the most up-to-date computer informational programs for careers, occupational trends, available employment and qualifications, college information, and financial assistance; expose students to world around them by inviting business and college consultants to work with students on how to write resumés, fill out applications, dress for an interview, and go on field trips; career education classes prior to the 11th grade; and provide parent-student group session skill training for career exploration and decisions (pp. 25-26). For the lower achieving student, Levine and Ornstein in *The American School Board Journal* (1993) suggest such programs as Achievement Goals Program (San Diego), Higher Order Thinking Skills Program (University of Arizona), Accelerated Schools Program (Stanford), Success for All (Baltimore), Anchored Instruction (Vanderbilt), and programs from both Yale and Johns Hopkins. They are quick to add that these are all classroom centered programs which might be even more effective if the school district were to first look at systemic reform efforts for the district, then filter down to individual schools and classrooms (pp. 31-34).

Also in 1994, *The American School Board Journal* senior editor Jo Anna Natale, in noting that children's behavior is learned and copied from those around them, especially their parents, offers effective ways of blocking the 'trajectory of violence'. First, she notes, society should make efforts to eradicate poverty, alleviate family stress, improve young people's job outlook, control access to drugs and guns, and curb violence in entertainment media. The school's role in helping children unlearn aggression and antisocial behavior, she goes on to say, should be substituting constructive messages about caring, sharing, empathy, and cooperation, and systematically teaching children alternative skills for solving problems/challenging superficial beliefs.

In 1991, then Secretary of Labor Lynn Martin and the Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS) produced a report for America 2000 goals entitled *What Work Requires of Schools*. I believe The Workplace Know-How comprised five competencies and a three-part foundation of skills and personal qualities needed for solid job performance are valuable for every student and teacher in our schools.

Competencies effective workers can productively use

A. Resources - allocate time, money, materials, space, and staff
B. Interpersonal Skills - team, teach, serve, lead, negotiate, work with diversity
C. Information - acquire/evaluate data, organize/maintain files, interpret/communicate, use computers effectively
D. Systems - understand social/organizational/technological systems, monitor/correct performance, and design or improve systems
E. Technology - select equipment and tools, apply technology to specific tasks, maintain and troubleshoot technologies

The Foundation says that competency requires:

A. Basic skills- reading, writing, mathematics, speaking, and listening
B. Thinking Skills- making decisions, reasoning, solving problems, thinking creatively
C. Personal Qualities- responsibility, self-esteem, integrity, self-management, sociability

To provide these skills for students, teachers must first know the skills, and practice them (pp. xvii-xviii).

Having presented examples of programs that better meet the needs of at-risk students, consideration of the teacher role must be examined. I propose that teachers who wish to successfully meet needs of at-risk students should be able to:

1. Know and understand the definition of "at-risk" students
2. Know each student's ability level, interests, and additional needs
3. Seek and acquire knowledge and skills in using the best and appropriate teaching approaches and styles with students- audio, visual, tactile, kinesthetic
4. Make lesson plans and lessons student centered
5. Be patient and understanding
6. Network with other teachers
7. Consult professional services in the school/system and community as necessary and get them involved
8. Work with parents in a team manner whenever possible
9. Meet student needs in a natural, non threatening, yet challenging climate
10. Continually encourage, involve, and communicate with students on their level

Earlier I mentioned that children learn and copy what they see. In other words, as parents we serve as models. In schools, teachers serve as models. Teachers must model the behaviors and learning they expect the students to acquire. In like manner, supervisors must model the behavior and learning they expect the teachers to acquire via the supervision they provide if they are to meet the needs of teachers who work with at-risk students.

So now let us take this list of 10 things a successful teacher of at-risk students does well and see how it pertains to supervisors. As supervisors work with teachers either individually or in groups, proficiency in these 10 areas will be attended to continually. Helping teachers to better understand at-risk students, to strive to recognize their abilities and interests, to plan for and use a variety of student-centered teaching approaches, to evidence better patience and understanding, to network with both school and community personnel as needed, to team and learn with parents, to provide non threatening yet challenging experiences for students, and to encourage students as best they can is an excellent and productive role for the supervisor.

Supervisors are learners and teachers. Theirs is a cycle of learning that never ends. Supervisors work with teachers from varied disciplines and levels, thus their

knowledge base about teaching is ever-increasing. Their skills therefore, must be carefully blended with their knowledge base as they work with teachers for improvement of instruction. What sorts of skills should the supervisor possess therefore to better meet the needs of teachers who work with at-risk students? I suggest that the previously mentioned list would be an appropriate start. Thus I propose that supervisors who wish to better meet needs of teachers who work with at-risk students should be able to:

1. Have a current working definition of "at-risk" students, supply teachers with the latest at-risk literature, and organize teacher seminars and workshops on the at-risk theme
2. Ascertain the individual and collective strengths and potential of teacher with whom you are working and therefore generate an understanding of everyone's current knowledge base and skills
3. Drawing upon the knowledge base so obtained, select the appropriate supervisory approach(es) and timing as you work with teacher(s) in the supervision process
4. Plan all your supervisory interactions to be student-centered. The traditional supervisory technique supervisors used with teachers was administrative monitoring. The supervisor would visit the class, sometimes unannounced, observe the teacher's lesson, and then offer suggestions for improvement. This is a top-down, hierarchical model, and I suggest it is outdated. Supervisors help teachers improve instruction. The goal of course is the students' learning. Teachers are the medium through you reach that goal.
5. Plan attainable, realistic improvement goals. We are creatures of habit, and our idiosyncratic behavior has strong roots. Changing long-established behavior is a slow, tedious process. Persons must understand and accept the need for change of acquired behavior. Once this has occurred, supervisors must allow for practice (and failure) and be supportive and rewarding throughout the behavioral changeover process and beyond to insure success of the new behavior.
6. Network with colleague supervisors to self-grow, refresh, review, analyze, and synthesize in a job-alike environment.
7. Model the behavior you expect of teachers by consulting with others who can help provide expanded, better services for at-risk youth. I strongly suggest you form learning groups with business supervisors
8. Work with principals in a team setting whenever possible. Teaming allows insights into situations and persons you might not otherwise acquire. Observing their leadership style, and if possible, their interaction with teachers and others can be invaluable for your effectiveness with teachers of at-risk students
9. As suggested in 5., be prudent in all your working relationships. Instructional improvement occurs when a supervisor can begin to address causes rather than symptoms. Trust is the vehicle for getting to causes. If the teacher perceives that a trust relationship is not possible, your quest for successful improvement efforts with that teacher will not be realized. Usually that lack of trust sense is communicated by one teacher to other teachers as well. Be trustworthy, and demonstrate that to your colleagues.

10. Earn teachers' confidence in you. Communicate with teachers. Listening is the most important skill a supervisor possesses. Use it well and it will allow you to better serve others, and better attain the goal of meeting the growth needs of teachers who work with at-risk students.

First, I offer this premise "Teachers Want Good Supervision," and during the 27 years I have been working with teachers and teacher trainees I have found this premise to hold true almost universally. More important, I feel is that "Teachers Want Collegial Supervision," and the models I suggest can and should offer the collegial development teachers seek.

Next, I believe that to provide supervisory techniques that better meet the needs of today's teachers of at-risk students, we must first concentrate on the larger effort of creating a school culture that values effective teaching, that nurtures collaborative learning and growth efforts. We must focus on program and staff development. All teachers have students-at-risk in their classroom. And from what we have seen from the literature, a collaborative approach provides an excellent avenue to success.

The models I therefore propose for supervisors to best effect teacher instructional improvement and growth in working with at-risk students are:

1. Clinical supervision. Clinical Supervision, as described by Goldhammer, Anderson and Krajewski, 1993, is a user-friendly concept and process for improving instruction. When Bob Anderson and I wrote the text, we thought more about a one-on-one process. Today I prefer to concentrate more on the implications of a team process. Irrespective of individual or team application, the process requires Pre-observation, Observation, Analysis and Strategy, Conference, and Process Analysis. Requisite skills to implement the process include: knowledge of subject, supervision, effective teaching, learning styles, motivation, assessment, adult psychology, and group psychology; and process to communicate the knowledge skills listed above. The skills are demanding, and require continual study and practice.

2. The next logical progression, which is collegial professional development or peer coaching. The model I suggest is one that involves the supervisor as guide or mentor in the peer coaching process. I do so because I believe that, while teachers can grow as they learn and practice supervision principles, their primary role is teacher, a person who facilitates learning.

References

Anderson, P. B., & White, L. N. (1995). *Lighthouse 2000; Enhancing success for 9th and 10th graders.* Fayetteville, GA: Fayette County High School.

Bailey, G. P., Daisey, S. M., & Spears, J. D. (1992). *Literacy in rural america: A study of current needs and practices.* Manhattan, KS: Rural Clearinghouse on Lifelong Education and Development.

Bell, T. H. (1993). Reflections one decade after a nation at risk. *Phi Delta Kappan,* 74, 592-597.

Benson, P. (1995). *The troubled journey: A profile of American youth.* Minneapolis, MN: RespecTeen.

Brock, W. E. et al. (1991). *What work requires of schools: A scans report for America 2000.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Labor, Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills.

Bushweller, K. (1994). Turning our backs on boys. *Phi Delta Kappan.* 181, 20-25.

Bushweller, K. (1994). The face of childhood. In *Education vital signs,* a supplement to *The American School Board Journal.* 181. A8-A11.

Children's defense fund. (1994), *The state of America's children yearbook.,* Washington, D.C.

Division of alternative programs. (1994-95*). Identifying and meeting the needs of children at risk: Manual for at risk coordinators.* Milwaukee, WI: Milwaukee Public Schools.

Donnermeyer, J. F. (1994). Crime and violence in rural america. *Perspectives on violence and substance use in America.* Oakbrook, IL: Midwest Regional Center for Drug-Free Schools and Communities & North Central Regional Educational Laboratory.

Elliott, J. (1988). *Rural students at risk.* Oakbrook, IL: North Central Regional Educational Laboratory.

Enzor, H. L., & Osborne, W. L. (1994). Career development assessment of students at risk. *The Journal of At-Risk Issues.* 1. 24-26.

Goldhammer, R., Anderson, R. H. A., & Krajewski, R. (1993). *Clinical supervision: Special methods for the supervision of teachers,* 3rd. ed. Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Griner, L. (1995*) Public school solutions for at-risk youth: A county perspective. Savannah,* GA: Savannah/Chatham Board of Public Education.

Kreig, R., & Wheelan, C. (1995) Separate-but equal? *Chicago Tribune Magazine.* Feb.12., 14-25.

La Crosse Tribune (1995). *Gang life.* March 9. 1, B1-B2.

Levine, D. U., & Ornstein, A. C. (1993). Reforms that can work. *The American School Board Journal.* 180. 31-34.

Martin, A. (1995). '95 could be deadliest yet for kids. *Chicago Tribune.* May 6. 1,9

Mial, R. (1995). Committee takes testimony on crime code. *The La Crosse Tribune.* March 19. B-4.

Mullen, W. (1995). Faith, hope, and scholarship. *Chicago Tribune Magazine.* March 12. 12-20.

Natale, J. A. (1994). Roots of violence. *The American School Board Journal.* 181. 33-40.

Sherman, A (1992). *Falling by the wayside: Children in rural America.* Washington, DC: The Children's Defense Fund.

Stern, J. D. (1994). *The condition of education in rural schools.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, Programs for the Improvement of Practice.

Suntag, M. (1995). Saving city kids: The role of schools and communities. *City Schools.* 1. 6-9.

Three high school alternative schooling models: A response to at-risk learners. (1995). *Curriculum Report.* 24. 1-3.

Urschel, J. (1995). Cover story: Expert seeks 'classroom of millions.' *USA Today* April 11. 1, 2A.

Willis, H. D. (1987). *Students at risk: A review of conditions, circumstances, indicators, and educational implications.* Elmhurst, IL: North Central Regional Educational Laboratory.

INSERVICE EDUCATION FOR TEACHERS THROUGH THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN-LA CROSSE CONTINUING EDUCATION AND EXTENSION

Barbara Manthei
University of Wisconsin-La Crosse

In this paper I share the strategies, procedures and policies used to provide credit and noncredit inservice opportunities to educators serving students in the kindergarten through grade twelve public and private schools, preschools and the Wisconsin Technical College System from the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse Office of Continuing Education and Extension. Inservice education provides educators the opportunity to grow professionally as research is disseminated, current issues discussed and new teaching strategies are tested in classrooms.

This paper focuses on the role of the programmer to successfully offer courses to educators in Wisconsin as the polices of the governing institutions are met. The Office of Continuing Education and Extension is under the umbrella of The University of Wisconsin-System, The University of Wisconsin-Extension and The University of Wisconsin-La Crosse. The future trends for educators inservice opportunities in Wisconsin will be explored.

The University of Wisconsin System

The University of Wisconsin System merger between the former University of Wisconsin and Wisconsin State University systems occurred in 1971. One board of regents governs all the public universities in the state of Wisconsin. The merger result was fifteen institutions: the UW Center System with thirteen two year campuses, thirteen major campuses, UW-La Crosse, UW-Superior, UW-River Falls, UW-Stout, UW-Eau Claire, UW-Platteville, UW-Stevens Point, UW-Oshkosh, UW-Whitewater, UW-Parside, UW-Green Bay with two campuses UW-Milwaukee and UW-Madison with doctoral programs, and the University of Wisconsin-Extension. The fifteen institutions serve a state-wide population of five million people.

The University of Wisconsin-Extension

UW-Extension represents the outreach and continuing education functions of all institutions of the UW System. UW-Extension is organized into three programming divisions: Cooperative Extension, Extension Communications and Continuing Education and Extension. UW-Extension provides campuses with positions for program planners, instructors, and support staff. It also provides budget authority.

Cooperative Extension
Cooperative Extension faculty, based in the 71 county Extension offices and on seven UW campuses, respond to the needs of farmers, businesses, communities, families and youth.

Extension communications
The Extension Communications division provides educational, informational and cultural programming throughout the state via Wisconsin Public Radio and Wisconsin Public Television.

Continuing Education and Extension
Continuing Education and Extension faculty and academic staff, based on the 26 UW campuses and in UW-Extension, offer continuing education opportunities for the professions, business and industry, and the general public. This is the division UW-La Crosse works with to offer programs for educators. This programming division is responsible for statewide leadership, coordination, and budget authority for credit and noncredit opportunities offered by the UW campuses. UW-Extension does not provide any state funding for credit courses. Credit courses are budgeted completely on a self-support basis.

The University of Wisconsin-La Crosse

The University of Wisconsin-La Crosse is a public institution located in western Wisconsin granting Bachelor of Science and Bachelor of Arts degrees. The institution has a small graduate program with the greatest percentage of students seeking a Masters degree related to education. The enrollment for the 1994-1995 academic year was 7306 full time and 699 part time undergraduate students. The were 246 full time and 338 part time graduate students.

UW-La Crosse School of Education
The School of Education has 1265 students enrolled in the undergraduate program and 159 students enrolled either full or part time in graduate programs. The School of Education offers graduate programs in reading, special education, educational media, school psychology and a Master of Education-Professional Development. The School of Education has 27 faculty members and 12 academic staff positions that include teaching faculty nd administrative staff.

UW-La Crosse Continuing Education and Extension
Continuing Education and Extension on the La Crosse campus programs in six areas: Arts and Humanities, Business, Health and Human Services, Recreation, Physical Education, and Teacher Education. Each area has a programmer full or part time to develop and administer courses to their target audience. The programmers are responsible for :

-Establishing and maintaining relationships with contact people at off-campus sites
-Assessing needs of the audience
-Determining courses to offer
-Selecting course instructors
-Ensuring courses have received curriculum approval
-Obtaining department and college instructor approval
-Preparing forms for Continuing Education and Extension
-Planning course promotion
-Arranging with site contacts for room assignment and audio-visual equipment

-Ordering textbooks and other course material
-Preparing course materials
-Monitoring enrollments
-Supervising payroll

Credit courses

UW System policy paper ACIS-5.4 defines the student client group. Credit courses are to serve adults unable to attend classes on-campus during the week. In the past UW institutions had prescribed service areas. A revision of policy paper ACIS-5.4 (ACIS, 1994) allowed all UW institutions to offer credit courses anywhere in the state by distance education or face to face instruction.

All courses programmed through Continuing Education and Extension are UW-La Crosse department courses. Students receive credit from the department sponsoring the curriculum for the course. Courses are regular university courses that have been approved through the campus curriculum process and published in the catalog or the course is a special topics offering which must be approved by the department offering the course and the Associate Dean for the School of Education. A special topics graduate course also needs the approval of the Graduate Dean.

Departments working with Continuing Education and Extension to offer courses to educators at UW-La Crosse are Educational Foundations, Curriculum and Instruction, Educational Media, Special Education, Archeology, Biology, Computer Science, English, Health Education, Mathematics, Music, Psychology, Physical Education, and Reading.

Instructional time requirements for credit courses

There are two policies affecting scheduling credit courses. A UW System policy requires every credit must touch one calendar week. For example a 40 hour, three credit course must meet in three different calendar weeks. The University of Wisconsin-La Crosse has the following instructional time requirements for credit courses:

1 credit equals 800 instructional minutes or 13.3 clock hours,
2 credits equals 1600 instructional minutes or 26.6 clock hours,
3 credits equals 2400 instructional minutes or 40 clock hours.

The courses administered through Continuing Education and Extension are scheduled in a format that accommodates the course content, the instructors schedule and the calendars of the school district where the course is hosted. The examples below will reflect more hours than noted above since time for breaks are built into the programming to provide the correct amount of instructional time.

A one credit course may meet in the following formats:

-two days, 8 a.m. - noon and 1 - 4 p.m., includes a 20 minute morning break, 45 minute lunch period and a 15 minute afternoon break.
-once a week, four weeks, 3 hours, 40 minutes, includes a 20 minute break each session
-a combination of one day and two evening sessions.

A two credit course may meet in the following formats:

-eight weeks, 3 hours, 40 minutes, includes (1) 20 minute break per session
-four Saturdays, 8 a.m. - noon and 1 - 4 p.m.,
-three weekends, Friday night 5 - 9:00 p.m. (20 minute break) and Saturday 8 - noon and 12:45 - 2:30 p.m., includes a 20 minute morning break, 45 minute lunch period and a 10 minute afternoon break.
-one week end using the above format, plus five evening sessions meeting 3 hours 50 minutes with an 18 minute break.
-institutes during summer session, one presession one month prior to the institute followed by a four day institute.

A three credit course may meet in the following formats:

-16 weeks, the UW-La Crosse semester, 2.5 hours per week
-12 weeks, 3 hours, 40 minutes, includes one (1) 20 minute break per session
-one full day and ten 3 hours 40 minutes evening sessions
-four weekends, Fridays-4 hours, Saturdays-8-noon, 1-4 p.m. 1 hour lunch, plus 60 minutes for breaks
-summer session, three weeks, Monday-Thursday, 3 hours, 40 minutes, 20 minute break
-summer session, four weeks, Monday-Thursday, 2 hours, 45 minutes, 15 minute break

The process of offering a course

Requests
The catalyst for offering a course through Continuing Education and Extension happens in several ways. A school district or building within a district may request a course or a topic they want a credit course developed around. A individual teacher or staff development committees may request a course. At the end of each course students are giving the opportunity to request courses. Ideas for new courses emerge as a faculty member and the programmer discuss interests and research. A faculty member may propose to teach an area where they have a history of expertise. The programmer may ask a faculty member to develop a course to reflect current information that is written in the professional journals.

Repeating Courses
Some courses the School of Education offers through Continuing Education are of high interest to teachers seeking recertification credit. These courses are offered on a regular rotation if faculty is available to teach.

Faculty

The second step for offering a course is to secure an instructor for the course. The courses offered through Continuing Education and Extension are taught by UW-La Crosse faculty and ad hoc faculty. UW-La Crosse faculty may teach an off campus course as part of load or as an overload. The maximum number of overload credits a faculty or ad hoc faculty member may teach in a semester is four. Overload assignments usually range from one to three credits for a semester.

Ad hoc faculty have a master's degree as a minimum requirement and must have expertise in the course curriculum. Ad hoc faculty must be approved through a search and screen process and be approved by the department that will sponsor the course unless a special exception can be made because of the special expertise they bring for a one time course offering.

If a faculty or ad hoc faculty member is available to teach a schedule is agreed upon and the curriculum process is the next step. If a search is made for an instructor a job posting must occur with an advertisement in the local newspaper. A committee screens the applicants and complies with UW System and national Affirmative Action guidelines regarding hiring.

Curriculum

Courses in the approved curriculum are scheduled with the department chair and Associate Dean's approval for the overload assignment for the instructor. New topic or umbrella courses must have a curriculum submitted for approval to the department, the appropriate Dean and the Graduate Dean if offered for graduate credit. Umbrella submitted courses may be offered three times and then must be submitted through the regular university curriculum process. Umbrella course numbers are used if the topic will be offered for a limited number of times such as developing a course to assist a school district in implementing a new program. The umbrella number may also be used for a new topic to test and refine the course before submitting the final curriculum for catalog inclusion.

Site

The programmer confirms a site for the course off-campus. Courses scheduled off campus are held in schools, technical colleges and at the UW-Centers two year campuses. There is a rental charge for holding classes at almost all sites.

Forms

Continuing Education and Extension has developed a form called a Program Information Form (PIF) on which all information regarding the course is recorded. This form is routed to the department chair, dean and Continuing Education Director for final approval to offer the course. This form lists the course title, department, number, section number, number of credits, instructor, location, dates, payroll information, and marketing information. It is from this form contracts are processed, the course entered on the campus computer registration system, marketing brochures developed and news releases prepared.

Marketing

There are two major marketing publications announcing UW-La Crosse inservice opportunities for teachers prepared by Continuing Education and Extension. Life Times is a newspaper type publication that markets all the credit and non-credit programs for professionals and the public. Life Times is published for the fall and spring semester with a mailing list of 17,000.

Continuing Education for School Professionals is the second UW-La Crosse publication marketed directly to schools, teachers, administrators and support staff. This brochure is published three times a year and is mailed at the bulk rate and with first class postage. For the summer session 1995, 9000 copies of this brochure were printed. Individual brochures are produced and mailed to promote new programs and courses and national speakers. Newspaper releases appear in local papers three weeks before the first class session. Small rural papers print the releases at no charge.

Another form of marketing occurs when prospective students call the Continuing Education and Extension office to inquire about programs or a specific course. Students inquire about course content, applicability to their assignment and recertification requirements and the instructors teaching style.

Student Registration

Students may register for courses offered through Continuing Education and Extension through the telephone touch tone registration system, through the mail, in person at the Continuing Education and Extension office or at the first class if space is available. Preregistration is encouraged because classes are canceled for low enrollment one week prior to the first class session.

Course Evaluations

Every course taught by UW-La Crosse and ad hoc faculty through Continuing Education and Extension is evaluated by the students at the last session. Evaluations are to be administered by a student in the class, collected and placed in a sealed envelope. The evaluations are tallied and the results with the comments are given to the instructor. The evaluations focus on the quality of instruction, course content, the relevance of the examinations or projects, the appropriateness of the site for an adult education course, the marketing, and an opportunity to request future courses.

Motivation for participating in credit courses

Educators in Wisconsin and the neighboring state of Minnesota have several motivating factors for enrolling in credit courses. The salary schedule is built on years of service and number of post baccalaureate credits earned. To advance rapidly on the salary schedule teachers complete credit courses. When a Master's degree is completed that effort is rewarded with another advancement on the salary schedule.

Some school districts in Wisconsin encourage teachers to participate in credit courses by funding part of the tuition with district monies. Credit courses that are funded by federal grant monies are very popular. Some grant courses pay teachers a stipend and give them equipment for their school for attending in addition to being tuition free.

Teachers certified after 1986 must earn six credits every five years in order to be recertified to teach in Wisconsin. As student service requirements are added for school districts, teachers are seeking additional certifications to fulfill new roles and make career changes in the educational setting. There are many teachers who are life long learners and continue to enroll in classes even though they have a master's degree and have reached the top of the salary scale.

Participants

The students who enroll in the courses offered through Continuing Education and Extension are nontraditional students who live near the university and in remote rural areas. Many rural students have responsibilities on family farms or small businesses in addition to their family and teaching obligations. The teachers in rural communities are especially appreciative when relevant courses are brought to their community. Continuing Education and Extension courses usually have a higher percentage of females enrolled. Elementary teachers enroll in courses frequently, even after they have earned a masters degree.

The summer session is when the largest number of courses are offered through Continuing Education and Extension and is the session with the largest number of enrollments. The spring semester has the second highest number of student enrollments with the fall semester have the lowest number of teachers enrolling in courses. This pattern is reflected throughout the other UW-System institutions. Teachers often say they are very busy in the fall getting their students and curriculum off to a good start and do not have time to add one more activity that takes a large commitment of time.

1993 enrollments	
Spring semester	574 graduate students, 39 undergraduates, 36 courses
Summer session	716 graduate students, 128 undergraduate, 51 courses
Fall semester	219 graduate students, 1 undergraduate, 18 courses
1994 enrollments	
Spring semester	389 graduate students, 22 undergraduates, 35 courses
Summer session	613 graduate students, 15 undergraduates, 58 courses
Fall semester	264 graduate students, 12 undergraduates, 21 courses
1995 enrollments	
Spring semester	372 graduate students, 26 undergraduates, 30 courses

Budget

Income

The revenue for credit courses is generated by student tuition. Courses held in the city of La Crosse and the La Crosse School District pay the same tuition rate as on campus students. The 1995 spring semester one undergraduate credit tuition cost was $112.15 and one graduate credit was $165.85. Courses held out of town had a tuition fee of $79.75 per undergraduate credit and $140 per graduate credit. The difference is a segregated fee used to support campus student services which students enrolled in off

campus courses do not use. The revenue Continuing Education and Extension receives to support its programming is less any segregated fees. Two additional charges may be added to student fees. If a course site is more than 120 miles from La Crosse a fee of $30 is added per course to support the travel expenses. If a course has a large amount of materials given to students the cost of the materials may be passed on to the student.

Expenses

Credit programs are totally supported by the revenue the program generates. The expenses that must be covered are listed below.

-Instructor salaries
-Instructor fringe benefits, 28% campus faculty, 8% ad hoc faculty
-Travel expenses, mileage, meals, lodging, phone calls
-Programmer salary, fringe benefits, travel expenses
-Clerical staff salaries, fringe benefits
-Office overhead, equipment, computers, supplies, phone, mail
-Rent for course sites
-Marketing production
-Mail costs for marketing
-Books, videos, journals, conferences

Instructor Payments

UW-La Crosse faculty have three options for receiving payment for teaching a course through Continuing Education and Extension.

Part of load. The course is taught as part of a semester or academic year contract. No additional compensation is received for this instruction.

Purchase load. Instructors are not paid directly for their work, but the department is compensated for the work. The Continuing Education and Extension office transfers the funds to a department account. The department approves using the funds for professional development following university guidelines.

Overload. Instructors are paid directly for their work. Payment is added to the monthly payroll check with taxes deducted from the amount earned. Overload requests must be approved by the department chair and dean.

Payment Amounts

Continuing Education and Extension acknowledges the work load increases with larger enrollments. Therefore the amount instructors are paid varies depending upon the course enrollments. The maximum payment for UW-La Crosse faculty or academic staff is 1/27 of the academic year salary per credit. This amount is equal to a campus funded summer session appointment. The maximum per credit payment for an ad hoc instructor is $900. The minimum payment is $700 per credit, assuming an established minimum enrollment is met. Eleven graduate students are needed as a minimum enrollment for a course. The minimum payment is the same for university and ad hoc instructors.

State employees are limited by state statue as to the amount they can earn in addition to their base salary. The maximum additional amount a university employee can earn in an academic year is $12,000. Additional courses may be taught for Continuing Education and Extension in the summer session and payment received above the $12,000.

Course offerings

Past course offerings
Courses that draw the largest enrollments and have the greatest frequency of repetition are courses that have content that is relevant to classroom management and curriculum application. The following areas have historically had strong enrollments: motivation, reading, children and young adult literature, educational issues, communication, classroom managements, whole language, teaching strategies, special education.

Future course offerings
Teachers, principals, superintendents, and support staff personnel are trying to meet the needs of students in a rapidly changing world of technology and social issues. Teachers express their concern that there is more and more to teach and not enough student contact hours. Courses that will have a high demand in the future are school to work issues, curriculum integration, inclusion, parental involvement in education, computer applications, restructuring and classroom management.

Non-credit programming

Non-credit programs are focused on a narrow topic and are completed in one day or afternoon or evening series. Non-credit events may be conferences planned with the faculty, a faculty member sharing expertise on a specific topic, or contracting with a nationally known person for a workshop. Non-credit programming needs to be a priority of the institution and departments in order to be viable and strong to serve educators.

Motivation for participating in non-credit programs
Educators have the opportunity for professional development without the additional work involved in a credit course. Non-credit programs are very focused and often have a small amount of theory and a greater amount of time spent in classroom applications. Non-credit programs apply toward the number of credits teachers need every five years for recertification. These events are one way teachers can network with one another and get feedback from their peers in other districts regarding curriculum and teaching strategies.

Department of Public Instruction Clock Hours
The Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction recognizes noncredit programs as valued education toward teachers recertifying their licenses. All programs must be submitted to the Department of Public Instruction for preapproval one month before the event. The minimum length of time required for program approval toward recertification is five instructional clock hours. Thirty clock hours equals one

university semester credit. If a teacher elects to use only noncredit events as professional development for recertification, 180 program clock hours are required.

Budget

Noncredit programming receives state funds to cover programmer salaries. Fifteen percent of the education programmer's position is dedicated for noncredit programming. Revenue must be generated to cover the cost of the instructor or workshop leader, travel expenses, rent, beverages and food, marketing, postage and program materials. Fees are determined by preparing a budget and dividing by the estimated number of participants who will attend the event. The goal is to come as close as possible to a break even figure.

Program examples

The education noncredit programming area is very small at UW-La Crosse. Examples of programs offered to educators are a early childhood conference and a video conference on the topic of violence in schools. Workshops have been offered in the areas of spelling, training teachers to work with parents who do not read with their children, Attention Deficit Disorder, discipline, archeology, assessment, Deming's quality management philosophy and education and children's literature.

There are large noncredit programs on other UW System campuses with full time noncredit programmers. Large conferences are coordinated with faculty and the programmer. The conferences blend national experts, regional and local master teachers and college instructors. Faculty work with programmers to develop workshops or recommend resource people to deliver the workshop.

Other inservice providers

Educators have the opportunity for credit experiences in many formats and from public and private institutions throughout the state and the country. The UW System institutions can provide credit courses to any site in Wisconsin that requests a course. Private colleges from Wisconsin and neighboring states offer credit courses in a very compact format of three credits in one calendar week or three weekends. Courses are offered over public television, with video tapes, and with students and instructors connected by e-mail. Fiber optic networks are in place in many school districts for universities to use to offer courses with interactive video and audio. School districts are working with private colleges to offer credit to teachers for inservice programs offered by the districts.

Noncredit programs are offered by professional organizations, the teacher's union, school districts, the Cooperative Educational Service Agencies statewide, hospitals, and other universities and colleges throughout the state.

Future trends

The future for credit and noncredit programming will be very competitive for all the providers in this field. The quality of the programs offered will have to be high and meet the expectations and needs of educators. Marketing will be a key factor in successful programming. Universities' inservice programs will be in a competitive

market and need to look at educators as their customers. They will need to win their loyalty by offering more relevant and timely programs than their competitors.

The delivery of courses will include using technology. By the 1995-1996 academic year UW-La Crosse will have the capability to deliver courses using the following technology:

-Fiber optic networks - two way interactive audio and video
-Compressed video - two way interactive audio and video
-Video tapes with e-mail communication

There will continue to be a need for instructors to travel to rural sites and present live face to face classes. Teachers like to interact with the instructor and their peers as they learn from each other.

Courses must be current and relevant. Practical application as well as research and theory needs to be present in education courses. The demand for more application in courses provides opportunities for professors and practitioners to team teach courses. Universities must respond to change in a more timely fashion with new curriculum if they are to be leaders in education. Continuing Education and Extension and the university departments must work more closely with each other and the educators in urban and rural schools to determine their inservice needs.

The demand for training school paraprofessionals will increase. Inservice opportunities for educators will be in compact time frames. Schools will be selective in how the funds are spent for inservice as budgets for districts are limited. Business and industry is constantly responding to change. Educators need to find the balance between keeping historic curriculum and pedagogy and integrating new practices and contemporary curriculum. All people, regardless of their age or employment status, need to be life long learners. People learn in many ways and in many places. Inservice education participation by teachers and paraprofessionals is one avenue for life long learning.

References

Academic Credit Information Series (1994) *Credit Outreach in the University of Wisconsin System*. Madison, WI: ACIS

Bradley, D. (Ed.) *University of Wisconsin-Extension (1994) Annual Report* Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

RECONNECTING EDUCATORS: THE RESPONSIBILITY OF UNIVERSITY FACULTY TO PUBLIC SCHOOL FACULTY - A UW-LACROSSE CASE STUDY

James R. Parker
University of Wisconsin-Lacrosse

Introduction and Background

In 1985 a number of my former students from the 1970s, now in their thirties and teaching in the public schools throughout western Wisconsin, began a dialogue with me. They contended that the university and its professional faculty had become increasingly insensitive, detached and unconcerned about their students once they graduated and became teachers. Moreover, they argued that university professors neither understood the culture and politics of the public schools nor cared about the intellectual development of their former students. They presented an indictment of the faculty not only for its self-absorption, but also for an élitism leaving the impression that, despite the commonality of the basic roles, of all teachers, the university faculty believed themselves superior.

My initial response was to be defensive and dismayed by young people for whose intellectual acumen and dedication I had the utmost respect. Their stinging critique forced a reappraisal of our roles and ultimately a reorientation of my own work. This was especially trying for me because I believed I was dedicated to and had espoused ideas of egalitarian democracy; that since the 'movement' of the 1960s, I had believed that people, despite differing roles within an institution, ought to be accorded equal respect, dignity and equal power to construct decisions that affected their daily lives. So I believed, at least abstractly, that teachers at any level should have an equal voice in influencing our educational institutions and that there should be no pyramidal hierarchy with 'professors' at the top and kindergarten teachers at the bottom. I knew that I had never met a man or woman whose character had been improved by obtaining a doctorate degree, and that the acquisition of advanced degrees reflected not an ability to conceptualize abstract ideas, but a clerk's ability to master detail and tolerate the humiliation and boredom inherent in so much of graduate education. But I had forgotten these realities in the years of playing politics in a rather narcissistic if not to say Solipsistic academic culture. It was difficult to deny that as professional educators, our focus had been primarily if not nearly exclusively upon under graduate education. In history, most of our majors, however, were also in education seeking certification as teachers. As a group, my colleagues and I did not see our responsibility extending beyond the student's undergraduate years.

While aware of the State of Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction's requirement that teachers must obtain six credits within each five-year period to maintain certification to continue to teach, we in the social sciences saw little role for us to play. The teachers, however disagreed. They contended that courses to provoke, courses of substance for intellectually sophisticated adults were rare in the social sciences. After meeting with several of these teacher-colleagues, we resolved to address this problem.

The result was the creation of a History and Humanities Summer Institute in the summer of 1985, in which we offered a series of four one credit courses in history focusing on topics of contemporary interest to the teachers. To determine the course offerings, we solicited suggestions from the teachers about topics in which they were interested or in which they sought better preparation. In consequence, we developed courses that were challenging both to the instructors and the graduate students. Courses on institutional racism, the Indochina War, and American feminism comprised the first core of single credit courses that I agreed to teach while a colleague taught courses on the history of childhood and on aging. A later set included Native American literature and philosophy and another pair on Black women authors and literature. The courses flourished and in each successive year attracted more students. Ultimately our initiative was so successful that the Humanities Institute was institutionalized and made a part of the regular summer session for the college.

Our second response grew out of the course work with the students. In conjunction with the teachers we created the Western Wisconsin History Alliance which was designed to explore other ways in which we could work together to advance our mutual interests and our newly developed relationship. The chief result of this alliance was the idea to focus on one day each year during which the History Department Faculty would provide a day of special university instruction designed specifically and exclusively for the high school students. The planning would be primarily the responsibility of the University faculty, but would also feature panels with high school teachers as well. Called the History Fair, we selected a general topic and devoted the day to exploring themes that related to it.

In particular, we attempted to identify topics which most attracted the students in terms of both substance and teaching method. In the first year we selected 'The 1960's' as our theme. After extensive conversations, we all agreed that contemporary students are more oriented and attracted to the visual rather than linear means of learning, that they are cultured and accustomed to visual images far more than earlier generations. Given that assumption, we built a large element of the visual into the History Fair structure. Ultimately, we decided to concentrate on the Vietnam War and the Civil Rights Movement and to do so by relying heavily upon visual images. We began by bringing all 600 students from 12 different high schools together. I extracted sections from 18 separate films on Vietnam to illustrate a lecture on commercial movies, and the public impressions of the War from 1970 to 1985. We followed with panels featuring excerpts from *Eyes on the Prize*, the award winning documentary series on the Civil Rights movement, and combined those with discussion panels. We finished the day with a political and artistic slide-tape impression of the 1960's.

In conjunction with the Fair, we published and distributed a *History Fair Reader* which contained articles from scholarly or popular journals that provided background both for the theme of the Fair and for specific sessions. Prior to the publication, we talked with the high school teachers and discussed sessions and background readings in which their students might be particularly interested. This level of consultation assured close coordination with the teachers.

Finally, and of equal importance, the high school teachers and college instructors shared responsibilities for workshops and panels and all were treated with the same respect and

status in the decision making process. We concluded that it was imperative for the students of high school teachers to see their teachers in an academic setting in which their views and opinions were valued by their university colleagues and counterparts.

By the second year, 1989, the History Fair had expanded participation to a consistent twenty high schools. Moreover we sought and gained affiliation with the National History Day competition as a regional affiliate. National History Day is a competition in which students are invited to submit research papers, documentaries and oral or visual presentations related to historical issues, competing with other schools students, the student's presentations are judged for academic quality and for eligibility for statewide and, finally, national competition. The addition of the History Day Competition and judging added another incentive and aspect and helped assure the continuing success of the History Fair which has remained at 20 schools and approximately 700 students consistently through 1995.

The final component in our new relationship with the teachers will be added this year. After considerable discussion, we decided to add an exchange system for 1995-1996. As a certified teacher of grades 6-12, I will participate in an exchange with a history instructor at a local high school for approximately one week. He will assume responsibilities for my courses including an introduction to world history and cultures, an advanced course in American history and politics and for an independent study discussions group with several final year students studying the history of feminist theory. The instructor with whom I will exchange is well prepared in these topics and fully capable of dealing with both lectures and discussions pertaining to the various courses during that week. The greatest danger is probably mine in that, given his schedule, my stamina will be sorely tested. We will both be expected to participate and contribute to the full range of activities expected to occur in the exchange week including departmental meetings and responsibilities.

Ultimately, the exchange will remind us of the democratized reality of the daily life of instruction; that the bureaucratic imperatives and expectations in both the high school and college are equally annoying, oppressive and demeaning to professionals. Moreover, it serves to remind college instructors of the burdens and expectations of public school instruction. College instructors never face the psychological stresses which is created by adolescents who lack motivation or whose hormonal levels control their behavior. College students have sometimes mastered the ability to sleep with their eyes open and appear interested in materials which they find stultifying. High school students are more outspoken and less tolerant of what they perceive as trivia and, in consequence, are an actual motivational challenge with which college instructors are largely unfamiliar.

An inter-institutional exchange will remind us of the realities of the experiences and expectations of public school teachers. Combined with the shared experiences of the exchange, we can only enhance the relationships and mutual respect of our program. This final element of an initiative began nearly ten years ago we believe should be expanded in subsequent years.

Conclusions

Overall the multi-pronged effort to reconnect with and assist our public school colleagues has been a boon to both groups of teachers in developing an institutional framework within

which mutual respect, experience and opportunity have significantly enhanced both academic and personal relationships. The UW-La Crosse Department of History has been and remains committed to this program.

It is clear from our experience that such initiatives are long overdue in every university that provides teacher education whether in the United Kingdom or the United States. Teachers in every institution share a commonality of interest and experience that is too often forgotten and a mutual and reciprocal responsibility that is too often lost in either increasingly bureaucratic demands and management or supervision and assessment or lost because we forget there is, in fact, no meaningful hierarchy of prestige, no real separation of our functions. Since we ostensibly take the responsibility to initiate programs like those at UW-La Crosse, that will re-forge our connections by recalling our common denominator.

EDUCATION POLICY MAKING IN WALES : A RESEARCH AGENDA

Robert Phillips
University of Wales, Swansea

Introduction

Policy making in education in England and Wales has undergone a transformation since the Education Reform Act, 1988. In England, this has initiated a massive response from the research community, where policy analysis has become an established discipline, spawning a rich variety of qualitative research, much of it sponsored by the ESRC. Some scholars have suggested that this boom in England is over (Halpin, 1994). By way of contrast, in Wales, education policy research is still in its infancy. This paper argues that the scope for this sort of work is now considerable, particularly in view of the fact that education policy has the potential to be viewed from a comparative perspective.

The paper summarises the present state of play in the field both in England and in Wales and then outlines the policy arenas in a Welsh context which need serious research scrutiny. It argues for the application of a policy sociology which is critically and historically informed, utilising a range of qualitative research techniques developed elsewhere in the United Kingdom and in other countries. By so doing it hopes to contribute to the current debate over the present and future direction of Welsh education.

Education Politics and Policy Making Since 1979

When Margaret Thatcher took office in 1979 few could have predicted the scale and pace of educational policy legislation which would be introduced in the following decade and a half ; in some ways, these reforms continued the 'Great Debate' over education (Williams, Daugherty & Banks, 1992). Yet 1979 was a major break from the past in a number of fundamental ways, resulting in an education system 'transformed' (Chitty, 1992a).

By introducing proposals for the National Curriculum, national assessment, local financial management of schools, opting out of local education authority control, the elevation of parental choice, and the introduction of market principles into education, the 1988 Education Reform Act represents an "unprecedented" and a "dramatic" revolution in the way that schools are organized, managed and above all, controlled (Tomlinson, 1993). In this sense, the Act "altered the basic power structure of the education system"(MacLure, 1989, p.v).

The period represented an attack on the post-war consensus on education policy making (McNay & Ozga, 1985, Chitty, 1992b). The legislation was an attempt to change the power relationships which had governed education policy since 1944, particularly the role of local education authorities. Government education policy has therefore sought to shift power and control of education in contradictory ways either by increasing the centralizing influence of the State (Simon & Chitty, 1993) or by offering alternative centres of influence at the locality through, for example, Grant Maintained Status (GMS) (Fitz, Halpin & Power, 1993) or the Assisted Places Scheme (Edwards, Fitz & Whitty, 1989). All this has

represented an attempt at 'reversing the ratchet' of post war education policy (Salter & Tapper, 1988).

This in turn has had a profound impact upon the notion of teacher autonomy which has either been eroded or reconstituted in different ways (Pollard et al., 1994) a situation predicted at the beginning of the period by Lawton (1980). The erosion of teacher autonomy and the consequent rifts between teachers and the central government is amongst many factors to explain why the educational politics of the period since 1979 should be perceived in terms of 'conflict' rather than 'consensus' (Lawton, 1992).

From Policy Description to Policy Analysis : the Growth of Policy Sociology

Education policy analysis is now firmly established in higher degree courses in university departments of education (including my own!), the result of a rapidly growing research community over the past 20 years or so. It is important to note that this interest in policy orientated research is not a peculiarly European or an exclusively English phenomenon. Education policy analysis features predominantly in New Zealand and Australia (Lingard, 1993) and in the United States (Popkewitz, 1991), where a particularly challenging policy research orientation has emerged which is rooted in critical theory and cultural analysis traditions (Apple, 1993 ; Aranowitz & Giroux, 1986 ; Giroux & McClaren, 1989). Time and space does not permit me a full treatment of this research here ; rather, I intend to focus upon policy analysis in England for the important insights it sheds for understanding, explaining and evaluating the origins, creation and implications of contemporary educational reforms.

As Hargreaves (1985) has shown, policy analysis in the UK suffered either from a Marxist pre-occupation with correspondence and structure or with a pluralist tendency to simply describe and report policy initiatives. Ozga (1987) called for a new "policy sociology" to be applied to the rapidly changing, ideologically motivated policy context of the 1980's and 1990's. This was to be a research orientation which was "concerned with finding out how things are and how they came to be that way and is not concerned with a specific problem or its implementation" (ibid, p.142). The time was ripe for "the development of policy sociology, rooted in the social science tradition, historically informed and drawing on qualitative and illuminative techniques" (p.144).

Policy analysis of this sort had already emerged in Scotland, whose education system has been the particular scrutiny of intellectuals working in Wales (see Osmond, 1994). This research had its impetus from the excellent work of the Centre for Educational Sociology at Edinburgh University. McPherson and Raab's (1988) study of educational reform in Scotland stressed themes which have particular resonance for Wales : conflicts between central and local government over policy, the loss of consensus, struggle for power and influence, cultural tensions and so on. The research combined empirical data generated through interviews with policy makers themeslves, with an informed theoretical, historical base, on the lines envisaged by Ozga. This kind of work is still strong in Scotland (Hartley, 1994).

In England, not surprisingly, the Education Reform Act spawned a rich variety of analytical policy studies. The work of Dale (1989), Jones (1989) and Chitty (1989) sought to trace the historical roots of the reforms, crucially their ideological origins. These and other

writers identified the role and influence of the ideology of the New Right in the determination of Thatcherite education policy initiatives. As Whitty (1990) has illustrated, New Right ideology combined neo-liberalism ('market principles') with neo-conservatism, a deeply traditional, restorationist view of education and society which articulated traditional views on nation, authority, hierarchy, standards and culture. Both have implications, in different ways, for the present and future direction of policy in Wales.

Neo-liberalism

As Bosanquet (1983) has shown, neo-liberal philosophy lies in laissez faire, the market and competition, articulated in the works of Adam Smith, Schumpeter and others but particularly in Hayek (1944). Neo-liberals see the market as the most efficient means of allocating and distributing resources, hence the need for priviatization and and the minimization of central planning. The impact of libertarian ideas upon education policy have been well documented. Edwards, Fitz & Whitty (1989) point to the influence of neo-liberal thought on the decision to introduce the Assisted Places Scheme. Dale et al. (1990) describe attempts by Lord Young to foster links between schools, industry and the market through TVEI.

But it was in the Education Reform Act that neo-liberal ideology was most influential. Increased opportunities were given to parents to exercise influence and 'choice' by increasing their power on governing bodies and providing opportunities for parents to vote for 'opting out' of LEA control in favour of Grant Maintained Status (Fitz, et al., 1993). In Deem's (1990) words, these measures elevated the power of the "consumer" (parent) over the "producer" (teacher). In addition, the creation of a national system of assessment and testing through the National Curriculum served as a means of "market indicators" through which schools could be judged and compared (Daugherty, 1995).

Dale (1989) refers to the neo-liberals as the "privatizers" within the Conservative Party. By winning the measures outlined above and the introduction of compulsory reporting of academic results, attendance and staying on rates in 1992, this 'privatizer' discourse had clearly won the struggle for influence over policy England. Ranson (1990) has therefore described the sea-change of values which constitute the aims and purposes of education: individualist, rather than collective principles now dominate the educational system in England, with consumeraism serving as the predominant means of accountability and control.

Yet an explanation of English education policy making which concentrated exclusively upon its libertarian features would only be a partial account. For New Right ideology and the educational policies which it influenced was also rooted in conservatism, expressed most significantly in cultural restorationism.

English Cultural Restorationism

What gave cultural restorationism its influence upon both government and the wider public was its straightforward appeal, described by Dale (1989) as 'authoritarian popularism'. This discourse has its fundamentals in nation, authority and order. What is important about the New Right's concept of nation, however, is its emphasis upon homogeneity, of commonality. Thus, for Scruton (1980), there is an unquestioning faith in the belief in a

common, natural, unifying culture, a sort of 'inner knowledge' which only those who have shared its unique customs, habits and rituals can appreciate :

> For most of us the state means, not just government, but also territory, language, administration, established institutions, all growing from the interaction of unconscious custom...The nation state is the state at the extreme of self-consciousness. It has its territory, its people, its language, even its church (Scruton, 1980, p.185).

This belief in a common culture exlains the neo-conservative intellectuals' reluctance to accept cultural relativism. At the educational level, as Jones (1989) has shown, this belief calls for assimilation into the cultural canon of the nation expressed most readily in its literature, art, music and history. What is crucial in this discourse, however, is the limited definition of nation, expressed in pointed usage of language. Thus, for Casey, "English patriotism...has at its centre a feeling for persons of one's own kind" (quoted in Seidel, 1986, p.112). For the Hillgate Group (1986) education should be concerned with "the survival of knowledge and culture"; a National Curriculum is needed based upon "proven" subjects which reflect "the lore and tradition of our country" which it is "the duty of any educational system to pass on from generation to generation" (Hillgate Group, 1986, p.7).

This faith in the transmission of a 'common', homogeneous culture makes multi-culturalism intellectually indefensible for neo-conservatives. Ball (1994) has described this as a discourse combining nostalgia and authority : it sees education as simple, based upon traditional subjects and values such as authority, discipline and rote learning : the Victorian classroom or the grammar school are 'the lost objects of desire', contrasting with the bewilderingly complex teaching methods of the contemporary scene. As Ball shows, cultural restorationists have had influence over the policy making process in England, particularly under John Major, reflected, for example, in subjects such as English and history which were identified by cultural restorationists as particularly important arenas for cultural struggle (Phillips, 1992c). Interestingly, this cultural restorationist strand of New Right ideology may indirectly explain why Wales was granted its own distinctive curriculum framework and why a multi-cultural agenda in England was rejected (Coulby, 1989).

It is possible, therefore, to see the influences of both libertarian and cultural restorationist discourses at work in England. To add to the complexity, Maw (1993) notes the cross-curricular discourse initiated mainly by the National Curriculum Council (NCC), developments which have been described by one of the policy makers himself (Graham with Tytler, 1993). This combination of discourses at work within the English system explains the complex and sometimes contradictory outcome of education policies in England.

Explaining the Education Policy Process

Few have contributed more significantly to the emergence of policy sociology than Stephen Ball, whose work in this field has been influential (White & Crump, 1993). Using many of the illuminative qualitative techniques described by Ozga earlier, Ball analysed the macro-policy making framework in England, utilising data generated from interview material with policy makers themselves (Ball, 1990). The most valuable aspect of the book was the way it demonstrated the influence of the ideology described above, which Ball termed the "New

Right discourse of derision" on macro-decision making. Later, Ball devoted attention to the way in which policy was implemented at a local level. For Ball and his colleagues, education policy should not be viewed as a fixed entity, it is a "dialectical process", sometimes accepted at the local level unconditionally but more often than not subject to interpretation, contestation, and opposition (Bowe & Ball, with Gold, 1992).

Ball's work is important for three major reasons. Firstly, the emphasis upon policy as an ideology, as a set of values, meanings and ideas allows us to view policy as discourse, open to "possibilities and impossibilities". Secondly, it provides an analytical framework for explaining the policy process : thus, policy is conceived in the "context of influence", the ideological roots of policy, where discourses are constructed by intellectuals or "players" and have influence on government through, for example pressure groups. The two previous sections of this paper discussed the "context of influence" relating to both libertarian and cultural restorationist discourses. Policy texts (such as National Curriculum documents) are produced by "agents" (such as working groups) in the "context of policy text production". Finally, policy is interpreted and re-interpreted by "practitioners" in the "context of practice" (Bowe & Ball with Gold, 1992). Thirdly, Ball's most recent work has been useful for describing and explaining the impact of cultural restorationism upon education policy, described above (Ball, 1994).

Ball's conceptual and theoretical eclecticism has not gone unnoticed by some commentators (Hatcher & Troyna, 1994). Yet Ball's work can be interpreted as the product of developments in the field of policy sociology demanded by Hargreaves and Ozga above. Clearly neither Marxist structural approaches nor pluralistic 'descriptive' accounts of policy are sufficient. These recent developments have caused a re-conceptualization of the ways that the governance of education - including management, power and control in education - are studied (Raab, 1994). Policy cannot be said to be unconditionally 'delivered': a distinction has to be drawn between the implementation and formulation of policy (Fitz, Halpin & Power, 1994). In this process, the role of teachers themselves in the interpretation and creation of policy itself is crucial (Croll et al., 1994). These issues are of importance for a full appreciation of the education policy context of Wales.

Towards a Welsh Education Polity ?

What explains at the same time both sociology's appeal and its discomforture for some, is its ability to be incisive, to analyse, to explain, and to describe long held views, sentiments, ideas and cherished beliefs in new forms, in ways which cause a re-evaluation of what was once thought to be "common sense". It is in the business of "voicing concerns" about issues which are apparently unproblematic (Arnot & Barton, 1992).

In my view, the application of policy sociology to education reform in England has made sense of the tensions, contradictions and conflicts over education politics since 1979. In the post-Dearing era, it may be that policy sociology in England has the potential to go from boom to decline (Halpin, 1994). Yet in Wales, I now want to argue that the contemporary education policy scene at the time of writing provides an abundant range of opportunities for the application of the analytical framework described above. In Wales, we have only very recently begun to recognize and explain some of the discourses which have emerged and are continuing to emerge here. In this sense, the boom in policy sociology may just be beginning in Wales.

Illuminative and perceptive as many of the works described above are, there is nevertheless a tendency to avoid the Welsh agenda, which is surprising given the curricular and institutional distinctiveness of the Welsh education polity outlined earlier, an ommission which has mystified other Welsh educationalists (see Jones, 1992, p.98). Virtually no reference is made either to the Welsh education policy initiatives or to the unique debates over cultural expression. There is surely some potential for Welsh education policy to be viewed, at leat tentatively, within a comparative context. But there is very little appreciation, as yet, of this happening (see Dale, 1994). Policy is therefore described very much in an 'England and Wales' rather than an 'England or Wales' context.

The distinctivenes of Welsh education policy has ebbed and flowed during the course of the 20th century. Jones (1982) has described the "distinctively Welsh" nature of education in Wales before 1944. Yet there was very little notion of a 'Welsh curriculum' betwen 1944 and 1988 (Jones, 1994). The only distinctive feature of the education system in Wales during this period, apart from lingustic differences, was the apparent mediocrity of its educational standards (Reynolds & Murgatroyd, 1981 ; Reynolds, 1989).

The 1988 Education Reform Act initiated some surprising potential for the re-emergence of distinctiveness not only in curricular but also in institutional terms. The establishment of the CCW (later ACAC) to advise the Secretary of State for Wales released potential for a decidedly 'Welsh' orientation to curriculum, reflected in the distinctive elements in the statutory orders in history, geography, music and art. Perhaps even more significantly, the 'Welshness' of the curriculum is to be ensured through the 'Whole Curriculum' (CCW, 1991). This is an educational experience which reflects the values, heritage, culture, language and literature of a 'Curriculum Cymreig' (CCW, 1993).

Overall, therefore, in both curricular and institutional terms, Wales now has core elements of a distinctive education polity, in theory if not in reality, a situation which holds much potential for those with an interest in shaping the future direction of education policy in Wales (Bellin, Osmond & Reynolds, 1994). However, Welsh educationalists have been slow to grasp the potential analytical tools which policy sociology provides for appreciating the origins, nature and direction of education. Education policy is still often the preserve of historians of education; other policy-orientated research is predominantly descriptive in nature (see, for example, Daugherty et al. 1991). This may be due to the policy-driven research funding arrangements in Wales.

Yet there are signs that educationalists working in Wales are starting to engage in the sociological aspects of policy making in education. Reynolds has toiled hard in the field of school effectiveness and educational standards, and has recently contributed more widely to the policy debate in Wales (Reynolds, 1995). One of the most interesting recent contributions is Williams & Jones' (1994) discussion of the tensions between the creation of a National Curriculum and attempts at cultural restorationism.

Welsh Cultural Restorationism

I have illustrated the importance of appreciating the nature and impact of the discourse of cultural restorationism for understanding and locating education policy in England. Cultural

restorationism has also been in the ascendancy in Wales, mainly in the shape of Curriculum Cymreig (CCW 1991, 1993 & 1994) but also in other policy texts (Welsh Office, 1990).

What is interesting about this discourse is that it raises many of the sensitive issues raised by cultural restorationists in England, such as the concept of nation, distinctive values and traditions, common heritage, linguistic features, and geopolitical factors. However, Welsh cultural restorationism is different in fundamental ways to its English counterpart, mainly because Welsh cultural restorationists are more amenable to the concept of relativism. This partly explains why this discourse is articulated in a non-contentious, unproblematic manner; it has therefore apparently "engendered a spirit of purposeful co-operation in the schools that have embraced it" (Jones & Lewis, 1995, p.29).

However, as a discourse concerned with cultural re-affirmation, Welsh cultural restorationism recognizes cultural diversity but affirms the prominence of Welsh culture:

> The CCW recognizes the fact that although Wales, like the rest of Britain, is culturally and ethnically diverse, it has a distinctive cultural dimension that needs to be acknowledged (CCW, 1993, p.33).

By utilising some of the analytical methods of policy sociologists, it may be possible to point to some of the tensions involved in any attempt to re-affirm a particular cultural dimension through education, however consensual or 'common' that cultural distinctivenss may appear at first sight. The work of Apple (1990) reminds us of the power of ideology within the curriculum in this respect. These tensions may become particularly apparent when this cultural agenda is implemented in the context of practice.

Welsh cultural restorationism has embraced many of the features, tactics and linguistic nuances of English cultural restorationism oultined above and in some ways has similar perceptions of the concepts of nation, tradition and culture. Yet its context of influence is different. In Wales, cultural restorationism has emerged within, not outside, the education institutional policy making process itself. Maw (1993) traces the origins of an alterantive, cross-curricular discourse in England within the institutional policy framework of the educational state, namely the NCC.

Interestingly, in Wales, cultural restorationist discourse found expression through the CCW and was also cross-curricular. In an early document, the CCW recognized that schools in Wales varied in social and geographical terms, but at the same time identified a common set of Welsh experiences and values, rooted not only language but in a distinctive or 'peculiar' curriculum content, summarised in the concept of 'Curriculum Cymreig'. This was defined as embodying a set of curricular values which were "concerned with Wales" (CCW, 1991).

This was given articulation in an advisory paper designed to help schools develop a Curriculum Cymreig (CCW, 1993). In many of the CCW documents, emphasis is placed upon the forward thinking nature of the agenda, yet in its quest to stress distinctiveness within a contemporary scene, it often embraces restorationist language. Thus the 1993 document stated that pupils in Wales had an "entitlement" to the Curriculum Cymreig which could have expression through : "place and heritage", a "sense of belonging" and "language and literature". The document emphasised that Curriculum Cymreig was aimed at encouraging an awareness of "the opportunities which the future has to offer Wales in the rapidly changing world of the last decade of the 20th century" but its language and

points of reference were often nostalgic, on the lines referred to earlier by Ball. Thus, pupils in Wales are to be encouraged to "learn about the heritage of fable and legend which is part of the Welsh experience, and of the traditional Welsh love for the spoken word" as well as the "Celtic artistic and craft tradition" (p.4).

The variety of Welshness in "different geographical and cultural settings" (p.5) is emphasised but the "Welsh dimension" should be the "worthy objective" for every school (p.5). Thus, although schools should study the contemporary variety of religion in Wales, the curriculum should also place emphasis upon the "Christian tradition" (p.5). Similarly, history should encourage pupils to "make sense of their Welshness"; geography enables pupils to "develop an understanding of Wales as a geopolitical entity", while references are also made to the "distinctive art and craft of Wales" and its "musical heritage"(pp. 9-10).

Encouragement within the discourse is even given to the discussion of the significance of nationalism in the schools of Wales under the title Community Understanding, the distinctive cross-curricular theme recognised by the CCW. (CCW, 1991). Here, pupils are given opportunities to discuss such questions as "Does nationality depend on where you are born ? Is a Welsh speaker more Welsh? Can we change our nationality ?" and so on (CCW, 1993).

Further advice was given by CCW on how to develop whole school approaches to Curriculum Cymreig (CCW, 1994). This described the different ways Curriculum Cymreig was being implemented in 13 case study schools in Wales. The document describes, for example, the ways in which pupils' "pride in their locality" can be fostered (p.5). Again, however, the points of reference are often nostalgic: a sense of "belonging and ownership" is to be cultivated through the study of legends (p.8).

Little or no reference is made in this discourse to the possibility of teacher reluctance, antipathy or opposition to the policy initiative. Thus, the spirit of co-operation which the introduction of Curriculum Cymreig had initiated all seems such a long way - metaphorically as well as geographically - from the tension ridden, conflict orientated school cultures described by Ball and his colleagues in England (Bowe, Ball with Gold, 1992).

A full appreciation of the messages derived from policy sociologists on the policy process, particularly the interpretation of policy within Ball's "context of practice" in the secondary sector, allows us to question the uniformity and unproblematic nature of policy implementaton (Fitz, Halpin & Power, 1994). The complexity and variety of the local context (compare Aberdare to Aberaeron, Carmarthen to Cathays, Harlech to Hengoed), important micro-political factors such as the influence of individuals (particularly headteachers) and above all, ideological factors (rooted for example in different conceptions of Welshness), all play a significant part in the way education policy is subject to interpretation and contestation.

Work conducted in England has highlighted the reactionary, inward looking form which cultural restorationism there has taken and this explains why it has been rejected by teachers. Cultural restorationism in Wales need not and should not be inward looking or parochial. Potential within the discourse provides the opportunity for the expression of particular aspects of Welsh identity through a wider cultural context. After all, the

geopolitical entity which is Wales exists within a post-modern, global cultural market place, linked to the rest of the world through mass communication.

Within this context, it is the heterogeneous, relativistic, multi-cultural dimensions of Curriculum Cymreig, rather than the quasi-nationalism which need to be asserted. Curiously, it is perhaps the variety of the concept of Welshness - whether one comes from Aberdare or Aberaeron, Carmarthen or Cathays, Harlech or Hengoed - which gives it its own distinctiveness. Painful as it may be for cultural restorationists, this may involve rejection on the part of some charged with implementing it of some aspects of the notions of Welshness identified in Curriculum Cymreig.

The Emergence of a Libertarian Discourse ?

In terms of political complexion, Wales is very different from England. At the time of writing, the Tories have faced huge losses in the local elections. This, combined with the small number of Tory MPs makes it difficult to claim a convincing Tory mandate to govern in Wales. Yet interestingly with regard to education policy, there is evidence to suggest that a discourse embracing many of the 'privatizer' libertarian features discussed earlier is emerging centred around an ambitious, ideologically inspired Secretary of State at the Welsh Office.

At first glance, this may not seem unusual: a tradition has emerged in recent years whereby Secretaries of State for Wales have used the office to stamp their own characteristic brand of politics before moving on to 'greater things' (Hunt and Redwood?) or retirement (Walker). Wales in this sense can be a sort of political laboratory or a fiefdom where ideological experimentation can take place in relative isolation. What makes the Redwood period particularly interesting to educationalists, however, is the distinctive range of education policy initiatives which have emerged in recent years.

Like all good Thatcherites, Redwood embraces many of the seemingly contradictory features of New Right ideology. His views on moral and family issues are well publicised (Redwood, 1994a). This belief in the need for a strong extended family unit with a paternal figure at the head has long been a popular theme of New Right discourse (David, 1986). But it is Redwood's reputation as a good Hayekian that has won him favourable perceptions from the Institute of Economic Affairs and from the Right of his party.

Thus, competitiveness, deregulation, privatization are to be the key elements of a future prosperity for Wales in a mass, global market (Redwood, 1994b). The application of these market principles can readily be applied to education : comparisons across schools need to be encouraged and scrutinized through league tables to improve efficiency and competition (Redwood, 1994c). Moreover, the 'winners' within this free market need to be rewarded for their efforts, hence the announcement of specific Welsh Office funding for popular, over-subscribed schools (Welsh Office, 1995a). In order to compete within the global market, reforms in education and training are required to link educational institutions with the needs of employers and industry (Welsh Office, 1995b). Lord Young lives on !

At first glance, this outwardly libertarian rhetoric of the market takes an oppositional stance to cultural restorationism. But to Redwood, allowing the affirmation of a particular cultural identity within a global context is seen to be a strength, not a weakness in the process of

attracting investment (Redwood, 1994c). As in England, cultural restorationism and neo-libertarianism are not natural bedfellows but neither are they mutually exclusive in the drive towards popularist ideology.

Conclusion : Towards a Future Education Policy Research Agenda in Wales ?

Wales is now faced with a remarkably interesting situation from a sociological perspective. The curriculum now in place has the potential to develop a Welsh distinctiveness which is real, not merely illusory, with the institutional framework - the Welsh Office, ACAC and above the inspectorate - to impose it and to make it part of what Apple (1993) calls "official knowledge". What form this curricular identity takes is the subject surely of future research. A curricular framework which encourages schools to debate explicitly and critically issues relating to nationalism must command the attention of researchers.

Similarly, a discourse has emerged which has little naturally in common with traditional educational values in wales. As Bellin, Osmond and Reynolds(1994) have correctly pointed out, many of the key elements of neo-liberal education policies such as the encouragement of the private sector or Grant Maintained Sschools have little support in Wales. And yet as the section previous has illustrated, these issues are very much part of a contemporary agenda (albeit temporary given the prospect of a general election) centred on the Welsh Office.

This provides plenty of potential for policy sociologists working in the field of education. Clearly, the implementation of policy over the next few years, for example the development of the National Curriculum, as well as Curriculum Cymreig, needs to be monitored carefully and should build on some work already initiated (for example Cox & Sanders, 1994; Phillips, 1992a; Phillips, 1992b). The research community also needs to develop the excellent work written on other distinctive aspects of policy in Wales such as commmunity education, post-compulsory education and 'life-long learning' (Istance & Rees, 1995). All this work needs to embrace some of the illuminative methodology which it has been the purpose of this paper to describe.

It seems to me that policy sociologists have the potential to produce a Welsh version of Ball (1990), Jones (1989) or Chitty (1989) in England, or MacPherson & Raab (1988) in Scotland or even O'Buachalla (1988) in Ireland. In contrast to England, it could be that the boom in education policy research in Wales is about to begin.

References

Apple, M. (1990) *Ideology and Curriculum.* London, Routledge, Second Edition.

Apple, M. (1993) *Official Knowledge: Democratic Education in a Conservative Age.* London, Routledge.

Aranowitz, S. & Giroux, H. (1986) *Education Under Siege: The Conservative, Liberal and Radical Debate over Schooling.* London, Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Arnot, M. & Barton, L. (eds) (1992) *Voicing Concerns: Sociological Perspectives on Contemporary Education Reforms.* Wallingford, Triangle Books.

Ball, S. (1990) *Politics and Policy Making: Explorations in Policy Sociology.* London, Routledge.

Ball, S. (1994) *Education Reform: A Critical and Post-Structural Approach*. Buckingham, Open University Press.

Bellin, W., Osmond, J. & Reynolds, D. (1994) *Towards an Education Policy for Wales*. Cardiff, Institute of Welsh Affairs.

Chitty, C. (1989) *Towards a New Education System: the Victory of the New Right?* Lewes, Falmer Press.

Chitty, C. (1992a) *The Education System Transformed*. Baseline Books, Chorlton, Manchester.

Chitty, C. (1992b) From Great Debate to Great Reform Act: The Post-war Consensus Overturned, 1976-88. In Rattansi, A & Reeder, D (eds) *Essays in Honour of Brian Simon*. London, Lawrence & Wishart.

Coulby, D. (1989) The Ideological Contradictions of Educational Reform. In Bash, L & Coulby, D. (eds) *The Education Reform Act: Competition and Control*. London, Cassell.

Cox, T. & Sanders, S. (1994) *The Impact of the National Curriculum on the Teaching of Five Year Olds*. London, Falmer Press.

Croll, P., Abbott, D., Broadfoot, P., Osborn, M. & Pollard, A. (1994) Teachers and Educaton Policy: Roles and Models. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, XXXXII (4), 333-347.

CCW (1991) *The Whole Curriculum - Principles and Issues for Consideration by Schools in Curriculum Planning and Implementation*. Cardiff, CCW.

CCW (1993) *Advisory Paper 18 - Developing a Curriculum Cymreig*. Cardiff, CCW.

CCW (1994) *Teacher Support Programme - Developing a Whole-School Approach to a Curriculum Cymreig*. Cardiff, CCW.

Dale, R. (1989) *The State and Education Policy*. Milton Keynes, Open University Press.

Dale, R. (1994) Applied Education Politics or Political Sociology of Education? Contrasting Approaches to the Study of Recent Education Reform in England and Wales. In Halpin, D. & Troyna, B. (eds) *Researching Education Policy: Ethical and Methodological Issues*. London, Falmer Press.

Daugherty, R. (1995) *National Curriculum Assessment: A Review of Policy, 1987-1994*. London, Falmer Press.

Daugherty, R., Thomas, B., Jones, G. E., Davies, S. (1991) *GCSE in Wales: A study of the impact of the General Certificate of Secondary Education on the teaching of history, geography and Welsh*. Cardiff, Welsh Office.

David, M. (1986) Moral and Maternal: The Family in the Right. In Levitas, R (ed) *The Ideology of the New Right*. Cambridge, Polity Press.

Edwards, T., Fitz, J. & Whitty, G. (1989) *The State and Private Education: An evaluation of the Assisted Places Scheme*. Basingstoke, Falmer Press.

Fitz, J., Halpin, D. & Power, S. (1993) *Grant Maintained Schools: Education in the Market Place*. London, Kogan Page.

Fitz, J., Halpin, D. & Power, S. (1994) Implementation Research and Education Policy: Practice and Prospects. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, XXXXII (1), 53-69.

Giroux, H. & McLaren, P. (eds) (1989) *Critical Pedagogy, the State and Cultural Struggle*. Albany, State University of New York Press.

Graham, D. with Tytler, D. (1993) *A Lesson For Us All: The Making of the National Curriculum*. London, Routledge.

Halpin, D. (1994) Practice and Prospects in Education Policy Research. In Halpin, D & Troyna, B (eds) *Researching Education Policy: Ethical and Methodological Issues*. London, Falmer Press.

Hargreaves, A. (1985) The Micro-Macro Problem in the Sociology of Education. In Burgess, R (ed) *Strategies for Educational Research: Qualitative Methods*. London: Falmer Press.

Hartley, D. (1994) Mixed Messages in Education Policy: Sign of the Times ? *British Journal of Educational Studies*, XXXXII, 3, 230-244.

Hatcher, R. & Troyna, B. (1994) The 'Policy Cycle': A Ball by Ball Account. *Journal of Education Policy*, 9 (2), 155-170.

Hayek, F (1944) *The Road to Serfdom*. London, Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Hillgate Group (1986) *Whose Schools ? A Radical Manifesto*. London, Hillgate Group.

Istance, D. & Rees, T. (1995) Education and Training in Wales: Problems and Paradoxes Re-Visited. In Day, G & Thomas, D (eds) *Contemporary Wales, Vol 7*. Cardiff, University of Wales Press.

Jones, B. & Lewis, I. (1995) A Curriculum Cymreig. *The Welsh Journal of Education*, 4 (2), 22-35.

Jones, G. E. (1982) *Controls and Conflicts in Welsh Secondary Education, 1889-1944*. Cardiff, University of Wales Press.

Jones, G. E. (1990) *Which Nation's Schools ? Direction and Devolution in Welsh Education in the Twentieth Century*. Cardiff, University of Wales Press.

Jones, G. E. (1992) Education in Wales: A Different 'Great Debate'? In Williams, M, Daugherty, R & Banks, F (eds) *Continuing the Education Debate*. London, Cassell.

Jones, G. E. (1994) 'Which nation's curriculum - the case of Wales'. *The Curriculum Journal*, 5 (1), 5-16.

Jones, K. (1989) *Right Turn: The Conservative Revolution in Education*. London, Hutchinson Radius.

Lawton, D. (1980) *The Politics of the School Curriculum*. London, Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Lawton, D. (1992) *Education and Politics in the 1990's: Conflict or Consensus?* London, Falmer Press.

Lingard, B. (1993) The Changing State of Policy Production in Education: some Australian reflections on the state of policy sociology. *International Studies in Sociology of Education*, 3 (1), 25-47.

Maclure, S. (1989) *Education Re-formed: A Guide to the Education Reform Act*. London, Hodder & Stoughton, Second Edition.

Maw, J. (1994) The National Curriculum Council and the Whole Curriculum: reconstruction of a discourse? Curriculum Studies, 1 (1), 55-74.

McNay, I. & Ozga, J. (eds) (1985) *Policy-Making in Education: The Breakdown of Consensus*. Oxford, Pergamon.

McPherson, A. & Raab, C. (1988) *Governing Education: A Sociology of Policy Since 1945*. Edinburgh, Edinburgh University Press.

O'Buachalla, S. (1988) *Education Policy in Twentieth Century Ireland*. Dublin, Wolfhound Press.

Osmond, J. (1994) The Scottish Experience. In Bellin, W, Osmond, J. & Reynolds, D. *Towards an Educational Policy for Wales*. Cardiff, Institute of Welsh Affairs.

Ozga, J. (1987) Studying Education Policy through the Lives of the Policy-makers: An attempt to Close the Macro-micro gap. In Walker, S. & Barton, L. (eds) *Changing*

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Policies, Changing Teachers: New directions for schooling? Milton Keynes, Open University Press.

Phillips, R. (1992a) Time and the Sword of Damocles. *Welsh Historian*, 18, 10-12.

Phillips, R (1992b) *The First Year's Implementation of Key Stage 3 of History in the National Curriculum in Wales: An Evaluation Study*. University College of Swansea, Department of Education Occasional Paper No 7.

Phillips, R (1992c) The Battle for the 'Big Prize'. The Shaping of Synthesis and the Role of a Curriculum Pressure Group: the Case of School History and the National Curriculum. *The Curriculum Journal*, 3 (3), 245-260.

Pollard, A., Broadfoot, P., Croll, P., Osborn, M. & Abbott, D. (1994) *Changing English Primary Schools? The Impact of the Education Reform Act at Key Stage One*. London, Cassell.

Popkewitz, T. (1991) *A Political Sociology of Educational Reform: Power Knowledge in Teaching, Teacher Education, and Research*. New York, Teachers College Press.

Raab, C (1994) Theorising the Governance of Education. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, XXXXII (1), 6-22.

Ranson, S (1990) From 1944 to 1988: Education, Citizenship and Democracy. In Flude, M & Hammer, M (eds) *The Education Reform Act, 1988: Its origins and implications*. London, Falmer Press.

Redwood, J. (1994a) There Aren't Many Fathers Around Here: Speech to the Conservative Political Centre Summer School, University College of Wales, Cardiff, 2 July, 1993. In Redwood, J., *Views from Wales*. London, Conservative Political Centre.

Redwood, J. (1994b) Do We Want the Global Market?: Article in 'The Guardian', 10 January, 1994. In Redwood, J., *Views from Wales*. London, Conservative Political Centre.

Redwood, J. (1994c) Speech to the Welsh Grand Committee in the House of Common, 23 February, 1994 in Redwood, J., *Views from Wales*. London, Conservative Political Centre.

Reynolds, D. (1989) The Wasted Years; Education in Wales, 1979-89. *The Welsh Journal of Education*, 1 (1), 39-46.

Reynolds, D. (1995) Creating an Educational System for Wales. *The Welsh Journal of Education*, 4 (2), 4-21.

Reynolds, D. & Murgatroyd, S. (1981) Schooled for Failure. *Times Educational Supplement*, 4 December.

Salter, B & Tapper, E (1988) The Politics of Reversing the Ratchet in Secondary Education, 1969-1986. *Educational Administration and History*, XX (2), 57-70.

Scruton, R (1980) *The Meaning of Conservatism*. Harmondsworth, Penguin.

Seidel, G. (1986) Culture, Nation and 'Race' in the British and French New Right. In Levitas, R (ed) *The Ideology of the New Right*. Cambridge, Polity Press.

Simon, B. & Chitty, C. (1993) *SOS: Save Our Schools*. London, Lawrence & Wishart.

Tomlinson, J. (1993) *The Control of Education*. London, Cassell.

Welsh Office (1990) *National Curriculum History Committee for Wales: Final Report*. Cardiff, HMSO.

Welsh Office (1995a) *A Bright Future: Getting the Best for Every Pupil at School in Wales*. Cardiff, Welsh Office.

Welsh Office (1995b) *People and Prosperity: An Agenda for Action in Wales*. Cardiff, Welsh Office.

Whitty, G. (1990) The New Right and the National Curriculum: State Control or Market Forces? In Flude, M & Hammer, M (eds) *The Education Reform Act, 1988: Its origins and implications*. London, Falmer Press.

White, C. & Crump, S. (1993) Education and the Three P's: policy, politics and practice: A review of the work of S.J. Ball. *British Journal of Sociology and Education*, 14 (4), 415-429.

Williams, M. , Daugherty, R. & Banks, F. (eds) (1992) *Continuing the Education Debate. London*, Cassell.

Williams, M. & Jones, B. (1994) *Tensions Between Cultural Restoration and Nation Building in the Nationalised Welsh School Curriculum*. Paper presented at the European Curriculum Researchers' Network Conference, Enschede, Netherlands, August/September.

ISSUES AND TRENDS IN AMERICAN EDUCATION FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF AN EDUCATOR/STUDENT

Marilyn Pitzner
University of Wisconsin-La Crosse

Introduction

My purpose in writing this paper is to discuss my experience returning to graduate school as an adult to add licensure so that I would be able to teach students aged 12-18. In the process, I anticipated that I would also increase my knowledge of the teaching profession and refine my skills as an educator. I did attain these goals, and in doing so, I noted that certain concepts were repeated in many of the courses I studied. In my opinion, these concepts reflect what is being emphasized in the preparation of American teachers today.

Background

I earned a Bachelor of Science degree in Teaching in the early 1970s, and subsequently I taught students ranging in age from 11-14. Then in 1989, I enrolled in a graduate program at the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse because the program was flexible in nature, and I could tailor it to meet my goals. The specific program objectives that I set for myself were as follows:

1. To increase my understanding of the characteristics and learning patterns of adolescents and young adults;
2. To increase my knowledge of teaching strategies and techniques;
3. To gain understanding of the needs of the exceptional learner and how to meet those needs;
4. To be able to evaluate and interpret educational research; and
5. To increase my knowledge and skill of the teaching of English.

The program entailed 36 graduate semester hours and a comprehensive examination. Additionally, I was required by the state of Wisconsin to practice teaching in a secondary school (students aged 14-18) for nine weeks because I was adding licensure for those grade levels. In order to fulfill this stipulation, I took a year's leave-of-absence in 1994 from my teaching position.

My Program's Courses

Since my intention is to teach English in the future, I took courses in English grammar, the literature of adolescents, English novels, and writing. These courses increased my communication skills, gave me an opportunity to read adolescent literature and acquainted me with effective ways to teach writing, one of which is Writer's Workshop. The merit of this technique, I discovered, is that it is a meaningful way to teach writing because students select what they wish to write, thereby giving them ownership in their learning, and because they learn grammar skills in context.

As with writing, reading is best learned as a whole process instead of as bits and pieces of language (Tchudi and Tchudi, 1991). This communication approach transforms reading-to-learn into reading-to-communicate. Its focus is on getting pleasure from reading (Conley, 1992). I learned in detail about this concept as I examined reading techniques for the 11-14 year old age group and reading in the content areas.

Other subjects in my program fit into the category of teaching techniques and the nature of learners. I took classes concerning these topics: the exceptional child, psychology and education, how humans relate to each other in their environment, and methods of teaching English to students 14-18 years of age. I also learned about the unique characteristics of adolescents and about preferred styles of learning. These learning styles can be addressed with various teaching models, -including concept attainment in which students define a concept by examining positive and negative examples, simulation in which students assume participation in a real-life event, direct instruction which is highly structured, inquiry which is a group endeavor in hypothesizing and problem solving, and cooperative learning which involves group members helping each other (Gunter, Estes, and Schwab, 1990).

Of the methods of instruction which I examined, cooperative learning was incorporated into more of my classes than any other technique. I believe this is reflective of the importance that our society is placing on people learning to work together. The skills that students develop by learning to work cooperatively may transfer at a later date to the work place. Of course, an additional benefit of cooperative learning is the pool of ideas that is generated by having several people contribute to a problem's solution.

Upon completion of my course work, I engaged in two types of field experiences: The first activity involved observing secondary English classes, and the second involved teaching under the supervision of another English teacher for nine weeks. This latter experience provided me with an opportunity to apply my newly acquired knowledge.

My Field Experience

I was placed with a teacher who had taught secondary level English for many years but who, despite having a life-time license, had attended workshops and taken classes, so she was knowledgeable about current philosophies and methodologies in education. Because I was also an experienced teacher, we decided to approach our teaching situation as a team.

Teaching with another person gave me an opportunity to observe another teaching style. In my graduate work, I had learned that students have different styles of learning, but now I could see that teachers also have different styles of teaching. This particular teacher was creative, outgoing, spontaneous, and skilled at long-range planning; in other words, she visualized the broad picture. I, in turn, was organized and took a more holistic approach with concrete examples and sequential steps. I believe we profited and learned from one another.

There were other benefits of working together as well. For example, we provided each other with constructive criticism as a follow-up to teaching a lesson. I found this to be

an excellent way to improve my teaching style. We also discussed approaches to handling classroom management problems and to lesson planning. The result was that we anticipated many potential oversights in planning and there were few behavior problems in the classroom.

Sharing materials, methods of assessment, and teaching strategies were rewards of our teaming. Between the two of us, we had accumulated a wealth of materials which we enjoyed sharing. Interestingly, I also found that some of the teaching strategies I had used with younger students could be adapted for this older age group. Assessing prior knowledge, cooperative learning, student directed discussion groups, and entrance/exit focusing activities were a few techniques that worked for both age groups.

From this teacher, I learned to give the students a voice in classroom decisions, to provide meaningful learning activities, and to use authentic audiences for projects that were culminating learning activities. Many of these concepts were philosophies and strategies I had learned in my graduate course work, and although I did not observe them being employed in all school rooms, they were in this one.

In summary, having two experienced teachers in a classroom over an extended period of time was a unique and rewarding experience. It was also well received by the students because at the end of the nine weeks when we asked for their assessment of our teamed approach, it was positive in every case. The pupils commented that having two teachers meant more individualized attention, that they liked having two different personalities in the room, and that a greater number of activities could be engaged in during one class period. One student wrote, "One person is full of imagination but two are unbelievable. Double the teacher, double the help, and double the understanding."

The result of this field experience and my graduate courses was that I improved my knowledge of the philosophy of education and refined my teaching skills.

What I Learned...

About the nature and role of learners:

1. In order to be successful in learning, pupils require meaningful engagement in the process of learning. This engagement provides direct contact with what is to be learned and an opportunity to explain it, and it considers the student's preferred style of learning. Some learners will be more intuitive, some will prefer that material is delivered in a logical order, some will learn best by problem-solving, and some will enjoy learning in groups, while others will prefer to work alone (Conley, 1992). Although as an experienced educator I recognized these preferences, I have gained additional knowledge about methods with which to provide for all learners and their preferred styles.

2. Learners have different patterns of development. Students of the same chronological age differ physically in size, and they differ mentally in terms of Jean Piaget's stages of development. The latter difference affects the learning process because in the concrete stage, students cannot think about their own thinking; they can't analyze. This doesn't occur until students move to the formal operations stage (Cheatham,

1989). Clarification of the learning stages will mean that in my teaching I will provide both literal and interpretive types of questions for students.

3. Interest inventories, prior knowledge assessments, and preview and review activities are important because they affect the learner's motivation, and because they can help teachers to plan effectively. The importance of spending time on these types of readiness activities has become clear to me, and I will incorporate many more of them into my future lessons. Preview activities will be useful in planning what to include in a unit; asking for students' assessment following a unit will assist me in making modifications for the future.

About language and learning:

1. Whole language means presenting language in an integrated fashion to students so they can create meaning. Learning to read and write are interrelated, and they develop along with oral language. This learning is ongoing and begins early in life (Strickland, 1990). As a classroom teacher, I tried to create a language-centered environment. Reading skills were taught in the content areas as well as in reading class, and reading and writing were unified. Further study in this area has reinforced my belief in that approach, and I will continue to provide genuine literacy acts that are authentic and meaningful.

2. Reading and writing are acts of discovery, and ideas develop as students progress. This progression doesn't move along in a straight line. Maxine Hairston described it as "messy, recursive, convoluted, and uneven" (1982). The act of discovery also requires that students feel safe to take risks and be allowed to make mistakes. As an educator, I have long recognized the importance of focusing on what is right rather than what is wrong, and study of the necessary conditions for language development illustrates the need for a nurturing environment.

3. Curriculum materials need to be interesting, meaningful, and relevant to the learners. Work in this area will affect the choices of literature that I offer in the future. Since my goal is to have students who are meaningfully engaged with what they read, I will offer not only works by recognized, mainstream authors, but also multicultural works that will appeal to students of other cultures. In addition, I will put more emphasis on providing meaningful experiences, i.e. writing for authentic audiences.

About the role of the teacher and teaching:

1. Teachers are viewed as coordinators and resource people. Ideally, they provide support to students through scaffolding, and as students become more independent, teachers gradually withdraw their assistance. They are seen as facilitators of learning instead of dispensers of knowledge, and they value the process of learning as much as the product. Thinking is celebrated and the correctness of a product is not over-emphasized (Routman, 1991). When I return to the classroom, I will use some of the teaching models that require problem-solving to encourage student responsibility for learning. Scaffolding will be useful in discussion groups so that students learn to think critically and to assist students in realizing that there is more than one point of view.

2. Teachers can be life-long learners by attending workshops and by modeling an interest in learning. Reading aloud to students, reading while students read silently, writing while students write, and demonstrating thinking strategies out loud are opportunities for teachers to engage in modeling. I have always enjoyed reading and writing with my students, but thinking out loud is a new strategy. I can see applications of this to help students learn study skills, to practice test taking strategies, and to learn reading strategies.

3. The students' world needs to be familiar to teachers because learning occurs when it is personalized. When students can relate learning to their experiences, it becomes more relevant (Barnes, 1991). I appreciate the importance of reading adolescent literature, but I will also spend more time involving students in classroom decisions, and I will look for opportunities to connect the curriculum to students' lives.

About the role of the school:

1. Schools are being asked to meet the needs of the whole child (Barnes, 1991). Along with good academic programs, there are other aspects of development to consider. Psychological needs can be met through guidance counseling and programs like advisor-advisee which concerns issues pertinent to students' lives; and social needs can be met by offering sports opportunities, clubs, and music.

2. It is recommended that schools consider parents as partners in the education of their children. Program planning will take into consideration the input of parents, and classroom teachers will involve parents whenever possible. Triangulated observations (student, teacher, parent) can make both the student and the parent part of the educational process. I can play an important role by involving parents through frequent contacts, and capitalizing on any special skills that they might have to offer.

3. Integrated curriculum and interdisciplinary teaming are advocated because units that are organized around a problem or theme present information in the context of real world application (Willis, 1992). Students in this type of setting are asked to consider broad questions from the perspective of different disciplines, thereby recognizing the connectedness of learning. Although I cannot determine school policy, I can develop units that have a broad focus encompassing many disciplines.

4. Educators are calling for an end to the eight period school day. Instead, they suggest that fewer topics be studied for a longer period of time daily (Sizer, 1990). This learning structure strives for students to achieve mastery learning. This format requires administrative direction, yet in the classroom I can emphasize mastery by individualizing instruction whenever possible and by adopting a "less is more" approach. In other words, by covering less material but covering it in-depth.

5. Many educators believe that students should graduate with more than a vocational education. Increasingly, American industry is seeking employees who can think critically and adapt to new situations because technology is rapidly changing. The role that students will play in the future will require an intellectual education. This has implications for curriculum because in the past, schools often tracked students according to ability (Sizer, 1990).

My Perception of Trends In American Education

As I review what I have learned, I notice recurrent philosophies and concepts that I think illustrate what was being emphasized in my teacher training classes at the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse.

Interpersonal Communication
This category focuses upon the means by which communication occurs between teacher and learner, teacher and faculty, and teacher and community. The points that follow repeatedly surfaced in my program.

1. Educators are mentors or facilitators of learning.

They help students discover knowledge by taking on the role of coach and advising and encouraging pupils rather than lecturing them. They do more listening and observing than talking, and direct instruction is combined with many opportunities for students to take an active role in their learning. "Students should be workers who labor at their own education" (Sizer, 1990).

2. Educators have an important role in the development of a student's sense of identity.

They are sensitive to gender issues and pay attention to the verbal and non-verbal messages that they send, and gender equity is considered when engaging in classroom discussions. Furthermore, at the middle level there are advisor-advisee programs whose purpose is to make certain that each student is well-known by at least one educator and whose focus is to help form values.

3. Teachers communicate often with parents.

They routinely contact parents with information about their student's progress, and they involve them in the school's activities. Parents, school, and students work together in support of the education process.

4. Teachers are a community that works together.

Interdisciplinary teaching is a component of the middle school. The grade levels are structured into houses (units) made up of a teacher representative from each discipline. These teachers work together closely, making an ability to communicate and cooperate important. They are a group of people who are united in a common cause with mutual concerns for which they seek solutions (Tchudi and Tchudi, 1991).

Teaching-Learning Behaviors and or Styles
Much emphasis was placed on the ways that human beings learned and how instruction can be delivered so that learners receive maximum advantage.

1. Teachers give students opportunity for personal/public dialogue.

Personal dialogue can be developed through journals and reading logs and by teachers thinking out loud to model problem solving. Student-led discussion groups and presentations before the whole class are opportunities for students to develop the ability to speak in public.

2. Teachers are flexible.

They capitalize on the "teachable moment" and when an opportunity to make learning relevant occurs, they adapt their lesson plans. Being flexible also means providing for the exceptional child in the classroom. The need for this became especially pertinent when I practised teaching and discovered that there are a significant number of mainstreamed special education students who must have the curriculum tailored for them.

3. Teachers offer learning choices.

The whole language approach is structured around students selecting what they read and write because it promotes meaningful literacy (Routman, 1991). Offering choices is also a means for teachers to provide for different styles of learning, since some students excel at paper and pencil tests, while others can better relate what was learned orally or through developing a project.

4. Teachers use collaboration and problem-solving instead of competition.

Cooperative learning and other problem-solving approaches are employed to teach students to work together, and because they may benefit from each other's learning strategies and prior knowledge.

Instructional Methodology

Work in this category concerns the ways that teachers help children learn. Of the four topic categories, this topic was the most frequently discussed in my course work.

1. Various teaching models are employed.

The rationale for teachers being knowledgeable about a number of teaching strategies is that learning needs to be approached from more than one direction. Synectics, for example, requires creativity, concept mapping links knowledge in the different disciplines, and problem solving skills are needed for the Suchman inquiry method.

2. A variety of instructional materials are used.

Teachers are encouraged to draw their materials from a wide range of sources instead of relying on one textbook (or any as in Reader's Workshop). Guest speakers, newspapers, periodicals, computers, the library media center, a variety of texts, other teachers, and multiple texts provide teachers with a wealth of resources. When textbooks are used, teachers are selective and evaluate them with reading scales

indicative of reading difficulty, and they use checklists that scrutinize the lay-out of the book and the expertise of the authors.

3. Teaching through the use of interdisciplinary thematic units is encouraged.

These units mirror the real world by providing connections among the subjects instead of being fragmented by learning bits and pieces in isolation. Interdisciplinary themes and projects are also motivational for students (Jacobs, 1992).

4. Some instruction is individualized.

Reader's Workshop reflects a trend away from basal readers and toward authentic literature; writer's workshop reflects a trend toward learning skills in context. Both of these methods move individuals at their own learning pace. Teachers use anecdotal records, written narratives and work samples in order to tailor instruction to meet each learner's needs.

5. The student is involved in evaluation, and evaluation is both formal and informal.

Student self-evaluation and peer evaluation encourage students to take responsibility for their learning; they also engage pupils in critical thinking as they analyze strengths and weaknesses. Teacher evaluation may be formal (standardized tests), or it be informal and involve the use of portfolios and checklists, rubrics, conferences, and narratives.

6. Process and problem-solving are emphasized.

Simulation, STS (science, technology and society), concept attainment and concept development models reflect a trend away from learning facts and the lower levels of thinking required by mere recall and toward the higher level thinking skills involved in analysis and critical thinking. The process is as important as the final product (Routman, 1991).

Curriculum Design

This broad category refers to issues that concern more than one class, course or grade level, and concerns based on this category were prevalent throughout my studies.

1. Grouping is heterogeneous.

Classrooms and learning groups are made up of mixed abilities, sexes, and races, and students with learning disabilities are mainstreamed whenever possible because studies show that this type of student makes greater strides in learning when placed in a heterogeneous group. Tracking is not used because it doesn't support the American philosophy that everyone has the right to an equal education.

2. Instruction progresses from whole to part.

The whole language movement is an example of this philosophy. Reading, writing, thinking, speaking and listening are interrelated, and the whole language approach illustrates their interdependence.

3. Subjects are studied in-depth and mastery and quality are important.

In my studies, I was introduced to the philosophy of W. Edwards Deming who was a quality expert in industry and whose concepts are now being applied to education. He advocated studying topics until mastery is attained before moving on. I saw some evidence of this philosophy in the school district that I practised teaching in. The district has moved to a four period school day in which each subject is studied one and one-half hours. There are four terms in the school year so that all the subjects areas can be covered.

4. Schools provide for the needs of the whole child.

Along with the academic needs of each student, the psychological, physical, and social needs are considered. Programs are developed that teach values, extra-curricular activities are offered that give students opportunities to interact socially, and the health and physical well-being of the pupils is planned for.

Issues That Remain

In preparation to return to classroom teaching, I have been reflecting on the concepts and philosophies I studied in my graduate program. In so doing, I find some significant issues that are yet to be considered.

Is what I learned about pedagogy, methodology, and curriculum enough to meet the needs of the twenty-first century?

Education is not a priority for many students, and too many capable students make little or no effort to learn. Yet with a global economy, a falling standard of living, and competition for jobs, students need an education more than ever before. Currently, however, American industry is spending millions of dollars retraining employees because of inadequate skills. They seek individuals who can communicate well both orally and in written language and who are motivated to excel. Many graduates are unable to meet these requirements. The educator Theodore Sizer and the philosopher Mortimer Adler are calling for radical reform in the structure of the school, school day, curriculum, and teaching methods. Will what I have learned in my studies ameliorate the problems employers are encountering and provide students with needed life skills for the next century?

How will changing demographics affect school learning environment and curriculum?

Despite desegregation, multicultural studies, and affirmative action, racism, sexism, homophobia, and other forms of discrimination are prevalent throughout American

society. Our country is becoming increasingly multi-ethnic, but at the same time inequities and prejudice persist. As the ethnic composition of the cities and the schools becomes more diverse, how will the differences in cultures manifest themselves in the classroom? Will the curriculum be affected? What will be the effect if students have a minimal grasp on the English language? Most importantly, how can teachers help prevent polarization of our nation?

How will teacher change and curriculum reorganization come to pass if no one provides a vision?

Quality schools, a change in the structure of the school day, providing for the needs of the whole child, heterogeneous grouping, time allotted for teachers to plan interdisciplinary units, authentic assessment, and teachers as facilitators of learning are broad issues that must be endorsed by school administrations in a coordinated effort with the teachers. Unfortunately, there are educators who either do not return for additional courses or who have seen a number of trends in education come and then go and thus are resistant to new ideas. Can the changes being advocated occur if there is no concerted and unified effort by those who have the power to make changes?

If educators remain focused on their singular perspectives, can American education truly effect a radical change?

While the Council on Middle Level Education is concerning itself with a 10-point plan for middle level schools, other educators are specifically addressing the needs of their areas of interest. There are those whose focus is on early childhood, those who are concerned with a particular content area, and those who are interested in pedagogical strategies or in curriculum development. A few alternative schools exist in response to a particular educational philosophy (Montessori and Waldorf) but it seems that there are few visionaries who are examining and analyzing education as a whole. If educators remain splintered in their perspective, will changes be made that will meet the requirements of tomorrow's pupils, or will the status quo be maintained?

Conclusion

Through my graduate program, I have attained my goal of extending my teaching licensure, and I will also return to the classroom more informed and better equipped to provide for the needs of my students. I will be a more effective educator because of my increased understanding of learners and the nature of learning, of teaching methods and techniques, and of curriculum concerns. I am also better informed regarding issues being discussed currently in education and of philosophies being advocated. In order to refine and develop knowledge and skills in teaching, I think it is critical that teachers attend workshops, read professional journals, and return to school because education is a field which is continually in a state of change. It is a field that has a responsibility to respond to a rapidly changing society because its customers are those who must be prepared with the skills and knowledge which will further develop and enhance our world.

A concern that I have is the high degree of specialization that seems to cloud or prevent teacher educators from considering a broader and longer range purpose of

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

American education. This trend is even carried into the classroom. Teachers often become so focused on their content area that they fail to recognize that they need to work together and share ideas, resources, and especially planning so that students can sense a purpose and a design to their education. By its nature, teaching can be an isolating profession; therefore, it is up to teachers to make the effort to bring down the walls that divide them by working together to coordinate the educational process.

A stumbling block to this approach is that there are those who are not re-educating themselves. They continue to teach in the same fashion that they have for many years and they are resistant to change. A few teachers on a staff perpetuating obsolete educational methodologies can prevent meaningful change. Many of the current trends in education such as whole language and portfolio assessment require a unified approach on the part of a school. They cannot be successful unless all of the educators in a school building understand their design, embrace their effectiveness, and implement them in a cohesive fashion.

Finally, the current professional re-education program seems to advocate continuous adjustment to an historic model for American elementary and secondary education. The rapid changes in technology have meant rapid changes in human behavior as well as the mandatory changes in life skills. The students who are in the classroom today are much different from the students who were in the classroom at the turn of the century. Yet, our approach to education remains essentially the same with some alterations in methodologies and curriculum design. As we approach the twenty-first century, the question emerges whether the historic model will be useful. One only needs to compare daily life in 1900 with daily life in 1995 to see how far we have come in some ways, but how little change has been made in others.

References

Barnes, H. (1991, October). learning that grows with the learner: An introduction to Waldorf education. *Educational leadership*, 52-55.

Cheatham, J. (1989, March). Piaget, writing instruction and the middle school. *Middle School Journal*, 14-17.

Conley, M. W. (1992). *Content reading instruction: A communication approach*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Hairston, M. (1982, February). *The winds of change: Thomas Kuhn and the revolution in the teaching of writing*. Urbana, IL: National Council for Teachers of English.

Gunter, M. A., Estes, T.H., & Schwab, J. H. (1990). *Instruction: A models approach*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Routman, R. (1991). *Invitations: Changing as teachers and learners K-12*. Portsmouth, NH: Heineman.

Sizer, T. (1990, February 25). Lessons from the trenches. *U.S. News & World Report*, 50-55.

Strickland, D. S. (1990, March). Emergent literacy: How young children learn to read and write. *Educational Leadership*, 19-23.

Tchudi, S. N., & Tchudi, S. J. (1991). *The English language arts handbook*. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook Publishers.

Willis, S. (1992, November). Interdisciplinary learning: Movement to link the disciplines gains momentum. *Curriculum Update*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

DEVELOPING THINKING SKILLS IN MATHEMATICS

Sonia Jones and Howard Tanner
University of Wales, Swansea

Introduction

The Mathematical Thinking Skills Project (funded by the Welsh Office and the University of Wales 1993/4) aimed to develop and evaluate a thinking skills course to accelerate students' cognitive development in mathematics. The course was based on activities developed in the Practical Applications of Mathematics Project (Tanner & Jones, 1993, 1994). The National Mathematics Curriculum in England and Wales requires pupils to hypothesise and test, to generalise, and to prove their conclusions. The project aimed to accelerate the development of such formal modes of thought by enhancing key metacognitive skills such as planning, monitoring and evaluating. This paper focuses on a quasi-experiment to compare the performance of control students with those who had followed the course.

Mathematical thinking skills

The conception of thinking used in this paper is that of thinking as sense-making (McGuinness, 1993). We do not intend to attempt to itemise mathematical thinking skills here for, as Lipman (1983 p.3) has observed "the list is endless because it consists of nothing less than an inventory of the intellectual powers of mankind." However, Coles (1993) has identified three dimensions: skills, dispositions and attitudes; which are generic to any discussion of the teaching of thinking. In mathematics, a student would know how to perform a procedure, when and why it should be used, and gain a certain satisfaction from using these skills.

From a Piagetian viewpoint, adolescence marks the onset of formal thought - the ability to argue from a hypothesis and to view reality as a reflection of theoretical possibilities. Formal thought has been described as a systematic way of thinking; a generalized orientation towards problem-solving with an improvement in the student's ability to organize and structure the elements of a problem (Sutherland, 1992). However, these key aspects of problem-solving are metacognitive rather than conceptual in nature. It can be argued, therefore, that formal thought is underpinned by the development of metacognitive skills.

Accelerating cognitive development

Recent research suggests that cognitive development can be accelerated (eg: Shayer and Adey, 1992; Elawar, 1992) and a key feature of these studies has been their deliberate enhancement of metacognitive abilities. Indeed, metacognition has been identified by McGuinness (1993) as a primary tool for conceptual development.

Several researchers have argued for the explicit teaching of thinking strategies to improve learning (see Christensen, 1991 for a review). However, Christensen found that children who had been explicitly taught learning strategies failed to use them as efficiently or as appropriately as those children who had invented strategies for themselves.

We assumed a socio-constructivist epistemology, accepting that mathematics is actively constructed by students rather than transmitted by teachers but that construction takes place in a social context. Students were given opportunities to validate their constructions against those of others though discussion. Teaching approaches were intended to develop students' metacognitive skills and, by so doing, encourage them to construct and evaluate their own strategies.

The course targeted metacognitive rather than cognitive skills. It was expected therefore that 'close transfer' would be achieved and that the metacognitive skills of students in intervention classes would be enhanced. It was assumed that students would apply their newly acquired thinking skills to any mathematics which they met subsequently thus learning it in a qualitatively different way. 'Transfer at a distance' into the cognitive domain was not expected to be immediate therefore, but to become apparent as new topics were met. Thinking skills pay for themselves not so much during the week in which they are acquired but during the years that follow (Perkins, 1987).

Methodology

An action research network of six secondary schools was established, drawing students from a variety of social and ethnic backgrounds. The sample was not random due to the degree of commitment demanded from the teachers involved and consequent difficulties of self selection. It may best be described as an opportunity sample approximating to a stratified sample of English-medium schools in Wales.

The action research paradigm was chosen due to the novelty of some of the activities proposed. Two teachers from each school, who were to be involved in teaching intervention lessons, attended an initial one day induction course to familiarise them with the theoretical underpinning to the project and the outcomes of previous work, in particular, effective teaching strategies. They then attempted to integrate these approaches into their own teaching styles. Ongoing support for teachers was provided during visits by members of the research team (at least five per school), and through four network meetings held during the project.

Intervention lessons were led by normal class teachers rather than outside 'experts'. The advantages of this approach in terms of realism, pupil-teacher relationships and teacher development are clear. The approach carries the disadvantage, however, that the experiences of the intervention classes were not standardised. Regular participant observation by the university research team was necessary to record the nature of the interventions made. Teachers were interviewed after the lessons and researchers tape-recorded detailed lesson evaluations at the end of each visit. These observations revealed that the extent to which teachers were able to adopt the approach was variable. In one case at least, the attempt to marry contrasting styles resulted in confusion. In another case a traditional outlook overcame the novelty of the materials and a completely didactic approach was employed. Purely quantitative approaches often fail to see the realities of classroom interaction. Qualitative data adds some necessary illumination.

Two matched pairs of classes were identified in each school to act as control and intervention groups. One pair was in year seven and one pair in year eight. Matched classes were either of mixed ability or parallel sets in every case.

Written test papers were designed to assess pupils' cognitive and metacognitive development. The sections of the test designed to assess cognitive ability were based on a neo-Piagetian structure and items were classified as identifying one of four stages of development, which were referred to as: early concrete, late concrete, early formal and late formal. Items were placed in the context of four content domains: Number, Algebra, Shape and Space, and Probability and Statistics. Items emphasised comprehension rather than recall. Classification took account of the anticipated memory requirements, National Curriculum assessment, and the results of large scale studies such as the Concepts in Secondary Mathematics and Science Project, (Hart, 1981).

The metacognitive skills of question posing, planning, evaluating and reflecting were assessed through a section in the written paper entitled "Planning and doing an experiment". Metacognitive skills of self knowledge were also assessed by asking students to predict the number of questions they would get correct before and after each section. In addition to the written papers, the metacognitive skills of a sample of 48 pupils were assessed through one-to-one structured interviews. These were conducted whilst the pupil planned and carried out an investigation into the mathematical relationships inherent in a practical task.

The attitudes of the control and intervention pupils to mathematics were monitored over the duration of the project using a questionnaire which had been trialled and evaluated in another project (Hendley, Stables, Parkinson, & Tanner, 1995).

The pilot course and intervention teaching lasted for approximately five months. Post-testing occurred at the end of the course, and the delayed testing four months later.

The Thinking Skills Course

There were two strands to the course:

- a structured series of cognitive challenges to stimulate the progressive evolution of key skills in the areas of strategy, logic and communication;
- the use of teaching techniques which would encourage the maturation of the metacognitive skills of planning, monitoring and evaluation.

Underpinning both strands was a continual emphasis on the need to explain rather than describe, to hypothesise and test, and to justify and prove.

Teachers selected from groups of activities which were structured to encourage the development of a range of strategies including, for example: identification of variables; systematic working; coping with real data - estimating, averaging. These strategies were not addressed separately - skill in comparing and selecting strategies was required. A student who had attempted an activity from each group would have encountered a wide range of strategies. The activities in the course did not address directly the questions used in the test of cognitive ability. We were not 'teaching to the test' but were hoping to establish 'transfer'.

Metacognitive skills were not taught through the content of the materials but through the teaching approaches used (see Tanner & Jones, 1995), which tried to develop skills of planning, monitoring and self evaluation and, by so doing, encourage students to construct and evaluate their own strategies through discussion and debate. Teachers encouraged

students to think and plan for themselves and discuss their work, but they were not afraid to intervene to guide discovery.

Results

The main hypotheses to be tested through the quasi-experiment were as follows:

H1. Pupils following the course would have their mathematical development accelerated and would improve their scores in the post-test more than the control groups.

H2. The metacognitive skills of the intervention classes, as measured by the metacognitive section of the post-test would be accelerated.

H3. Accelerated cognitive development, as measured by the cognitive sections of the post-test would be observed in classes where metacognitive skills were taught.

H4. Accelerated performance exhibited by intervention groups would be maintained in delayed testing.

In each case the null hypothesis was that there would be no significant difference between the intervention and control groups. The results indicated that the null hypothesis could be rejected at at least the 5% level in each case. The thinking skills course can thus claim success in each of its main aims.

Pre-tests

The assessment paper was trialled with 60 pupils from a school not involved in the project. Analysis indicated that the test was reliable (Cronbach's alpha = .86), and internally consistent for cognitive and metacognitive abilities. Correlations between assessments of cognitive and metacognitive ability made through interview and written paper confirmed that metacognitive and cognitive abilities were very closely linked ($p<.001$).

T-tests on the pre-test data showed no significant differences at the 5% level of significance between control and intervention groups for scores on the attitude questionnaire, the test, or its cognitive and metacognitive sections.

Post-tests

Covariate analysis of the overall test results using pre-test scores as covariates showed a significant difference in favour of the intervention groups at the 0.1% (0.001) level. Null hypothesis one could therefore be rejected. Mathematical development was accelerated.

Analysis of metacognitive skills showed improved performance by intervention classes and little change in control groups. These differences were significant at the 0.1% (0.001) level (table 1). Null hypothesis two could be rejected. Metacognitive development was accelerated.

Hypothesis three contended that cognitive acceleration would take place when metacognitive skills had been learned. Qualitative data collected during school visits indicated that the extent to which teachers were able to adopt the required teaching approaches was variable. In three cases it was clear that the required approach was not employed and metacognitive skills were not taught. Data from these schools was therefore rejected.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

When these three classes and their associated control groups were removed, covariate analysis of the nine remaining control and intervention pairs revealed accelerated cognitive development for the intervention groups which was significant at the 5% (0.05) level (table 1). Null hypothesis three may therefore be rejected and cognitive acceleration claimed.

Table: 1 Post-test v Pretest - Covariate Analysis (Valid Classes)

VALID CLASSES		N	Mean		SD		Prob	I > C ?
			Pre	Post	Pre	Post		
TEST	I	214	17.4	22.9	7.3	8.8		
	C	203	16.8	19.3	7.0	7.1	.000	Yes
METACOG	I	214	4.4	7.0	3.4	4.1		
	C	204	4.3	4.5	3.3	3.4	.000	Yes
COGNITIVE	I	215	13.1	16.0	4.6	5.3		
	C	203	12.5	14.8	4.5	4.4	.014	Yes
ATTITUDE	I	161	3.5	3.5	0.5	0.5		
	C	161	3.5	3.5	0.5	0.5	.097	ns

Analysis of the cognitive section of the test by content domain revealed that the mean scores for intervention groups were higher than the mean scores for control groups in all four areas. Covariate analysis indicated a significant difference at the 0.1% (.001) level in Algebra and in Number (table 2).

Table: 2 Post-test v Pre-test covariate analysis by content domain (Valid Classes)

VALID CLASSES	N	Mean		SD		Prob	I > C ?
		Pre	Post	Pre	Post		
NUMBER I	215	3.9	4.6	1.6	1.7		
C	205	3.7	4.0	1.4	1.5	.001	Yes
ALGEBRA I	215	3.2	4.0	1.4	1.6		
C	205	3.2	3.6	1.3	1.3	.001	Yes
SHAPE I	215	2.5	3.1	1.3	1.5		
C	204	2.3	2.9	1.2	1.2	.846	ns
PROB. I	215	3.6	4.3	1.7	1.9		
C	203	3.4	4.2	1.8	1.8	.638	ns

Attitudes remained remarkably stable (tables 1 & 3). There was no significant difference in attitude between the groups at the 5% level at any assessment point. The similarities in attitude score suggest that there was little Hawthorne effect at work.

Following the analysis of the post-tests, teachers were invited to comment on the results:

"Sue": I definitely think it has helped their thinking skills. I said at the beginning that if you could convince me you could convince anybody because I was completely against it but now, I definitely can see the worth of it.

In the new classes formed for the new academic year some of the teachers now had students from both intervention and control groups. They were convinced that there was a marked difference between such students:

"Doreen": Well, the content that they were taught by us last term was exactly the same, both classes have done the exactly same work. But looking at the work this term, the intervention class metacognitively, planning and evaluating and that, the intervention class are, no doubt at all, far better. I have had much better work in from that half of the class - I've got the best of both classes now in the top set in year 9 from the intervention and control groups in year 8.

"Sue": Test and homework results this year so far are better from the students from last term's intervention class. They seem to be able to think more clearly.

An improvement in algebraic skills was noted in the ethnographic data. Teachers reported a greater willingness on the part of intervention pupils to generalise with letters:

"Doreen": In investigations they have been far more adventurous in trying to use algebra but they were taught formulas in exactly the same way as the other class.

Such comments corroborate the statistical findings.

Delayed tests

The graphs of test scores for the valid schools (figures 1 to 4) show how the gap which opened up between intervention and control classes was sustained after the end of the course. Intervention students continued to progress in parallel with control students but at a higher level.

Figure: 1

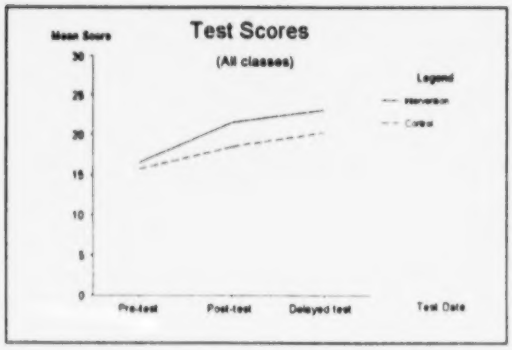


Figure: 2

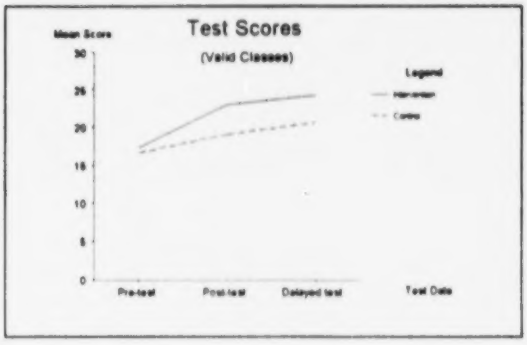


Figure: 3

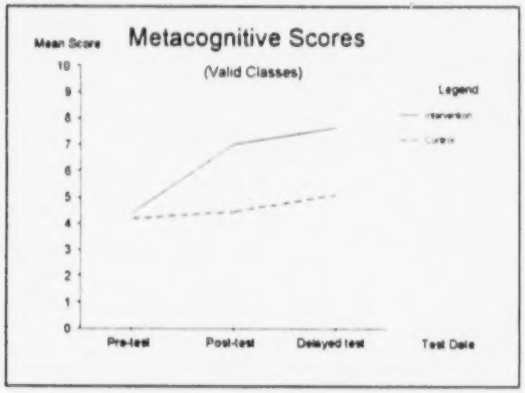
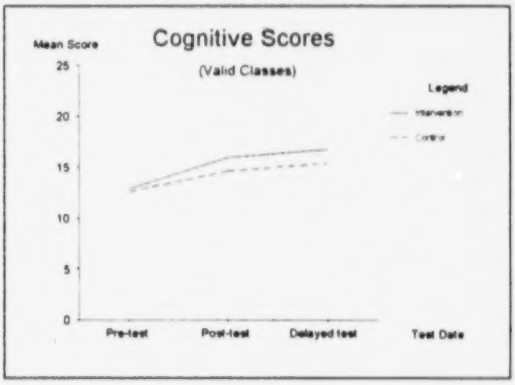


Figure: 4



Covariate analysis of the delayed test results using the pre-test scores as covariates (Table 3) showed a significant difference between control and intervention classes at the 0.1% (0.001) level for the test overall and the metacognitive sections, and at the 5% (0.05) level for the cognitive sections. Null hypothesis four may therefore be rejected. A sustained improvement in mathematical performance is claimed. The improvement was sustained in both metacognitive and cognitive aspects.

Table: 3 Delayed test v Pre-test - Covariate Analysis (Valid Classes)

VALID CLASSES		N	Mean Pre	Mean Delay	SD Pre	SD Delay	Prob	I > C ?
TEST	I	210	17.2	24.2	7.2	8.8		
	C	213	16.9	20.9	7.1	7.2	.000	Yes
METACOG	I	210	4.3	7.6	3.4	4.4		
	C	214	4.3	5.2	3.4	3.6	.000	Yes
COGNITIVE	I	211	12.9	16.6	4.5	5.2		
	C	213	12.6	15.7	4.5	4.5	.030	Yes
ATTITUDE	I	158	3.5	3.5	0.5	0.5		
	C	168	3.5	3.5	0.5	0.5	.742	ns

The improved performance in algebra registered in the post-test was sustained in the delayed test. Covariate analysis registered a significant difference in favour of the intervention groups at the 0.1% (.001) level for the nine valid pairs of classes (table 4).

Table: 4 Delayed test v Pre-test - Covariate analysis by content domain (Valid Classes)

VALID CLASSES	N	Mean Pre	Mean Delay	SD Pre	SD Delay	Prob	I > C ?
NUMBER I	211	3.9	4.8	1.5	1.7		
C	215	3.7	4.5	1.4	1.7	.261	ns
ALGEBRA I	211	3.1	4.1	1.3	1.4		
C	215	3.2	3.7	1.3	1.3	.001	Yes
SHAPE I	211	2.4	3.2	1.2	1.6		
C	214	2.3	3.1	1.2	1.2	.819	ns
PROB. I	211	3.5	4.5	1.7	1.7		
C	213	3.5	4.3	1.8	1.6	.149	ns

Conclusion

The improvement in metacognitive abilities of the intervention pupils was not unexpected as these skills had been targeted. The cognitive sections of the test, however, had not been taught directly. Improvement in these sections of the test may be explained by transfer of learning - by the application of improved modes of thinking to new mathematical contexts.

Pupils who had followed the course attained significantly higher scores in the algebra sections of the tests and were more willing to use algebra in their work. Achieving an

improvement in this area of mathematics is of particular interest given the recent concerns over the level of pupils' algebraic skills, especially in those pupils intending to study mathematics post-16. The course emphasised the need for abstraction and generalisation and aimed to develop the concept of proof. Such concepts underpin success in mathematics at A-level and beyond.

The sustained improvement of the intervention classes suggests that meaningful learning had taken place and provides a justification for the teaching of mathematical thinking skills. The course was very short and should be regarded as a pilot rather than a complete programme. Most of the intervention work was completed within twelve weeks. It is all the more surprising therefore that such clear and positive results have been achieved. Over a longer timescale it is probable that even greater acceleration could have been realized.

References

Adey, P. (1988). Cognitive Acceleration: Review and prospects, *International Journal of Science Education*, 10, 2, 121-134.

Christensen, C.A. (1991). Instruction, practice, and children's use of thinking strategies to solve basic addition facts, in: G. Evans (Ed) *Learning and Teaching Cognitive Skills*. Victoria: ACER.

Coles, M.J. (1993). Teaching thinking: principles, problems and programmes, *Educational Psychology*, 13, 333-344.

Elawar, C.M. (1992). Effects of teaching metacognitive skills to students with low mathematical ability, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 8, 2, 109-121.

Hart, K.M. (1981) *Children's Understanding of Mathematics 11-16*. London: Alden Press.

Hendley D., Stables A., Parkinson J., & Tanner H. (1995). Gender differences in pupil attitudes to the foundation subjects of English, Mathematics, Science and Technology in key stage three in South Wales, *Educational Studies*, 21, 1.

Lipman, M. (1983). *Thinking skills fostered by Philosophy for Children*. Montclair: Institute for the Advancement of Philosophy for Children.

McGuinness, C. (1993). Teaching thinking: new signs for theories of cognition, *Educational Psychology*, 13, 305-316.

Perkins, D.N. (1987). Thinking frames: an integrated perspective on teaching cognitive skills, in: J.B. Baron & R.J. Sternberg (Eds) *Teaching thinking skills*. New York: W.H.Freeman.

Shayer, M. & Adey, P. (1992). Accelerating the development of formal thinking in middle and high school students II, *Journal of Research in Science Teaching* 29, 1, 81-92.

Sutherland, P. (1992). *Cognitive development today*. London: Paul Chapman Publishers.

Tanner H.F.R. & Jones S.A. (1993). *Hands on Maths*. Swansea: University of Wales.

Tanner H.F.R. & Jones S.A. (1994). Using peer and self assessment to develop modelling skills with students aged 11 to 16: a socio-constructive view", *Educational Studies in Mathematics*, vol 27, No 4.

THE ROLE OF THE SUBJECT HEAD OF DEPARTMENT IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS - A NEGLECTED AREA OF SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS RESEARCH?

C.K.Turner
University of Wales, Swansea

Introduction

In this paper, I want to argue that one important dimension of the current debate about school effectiveness in relation to secondary schools has been overlooked by researchers. The academic curriculum in most if not all secondary schools in England and Wales is planned, organised and delivered through subject departments, often under an "umbrella" faculty structure. For most teachers, the subject department they are a part of, gives them an identity and in the eyes of other teachers, parents and pupils, status within the school and in the local community.

The advent of the Education Reform Act (1988) with its introduction of a National Curriculum based on subjects, coupled with a desire by central government for greater public accountability in education, has focussed attention on the performance of subject teachers as never before. The responsibility for the creation, implementation and monitoring of policies at the department level as well as their harmonisation with whole school policies lies firmly with the Head of the Department (HD). My comments in this paper refer particularly to subject areas in schools where the HD has direct responsibility for two or more other members of staff as a working assumption and the subject is a recognised area of the National Curriculum eg Mathematics, Science, History etc.

Recent efforts to identify the characteristics of effective schools and to seek ways of improving schools have focussed on "whole school processes" and as Fullan (1990) has argued, the key variables which characterise effective schools are now clearly established (see Fig.1). What is less clear are the processes and sub-processes which these schools engage in to become successful. Fullan goes on to argue that:-

> "Research should focus on the relationship of principals and vice principals to heads of departments, the ins and outs of developing collaborative cultures of teachers within subject areas and across subject areas, the process by which implementation capacity develops and the like. These microprocesses of change are probably the most neglected aspects of research on high schools" (pp. 252-253).

This comment shows the importance of developing our understanding of the HD role with its associated tasks since it is the middle managers in any secondary school who have the delegated responsibility for the introduction, implementation, and evaluation of a variety of educational policies at the subject level.

ELEVEN FACTORS FOR EFFECTIVE SCHOOLING	
1.Professional Leadership	Firm and purposeful A participative approach The leading professional
2.Shared Vision and Goals	Unity of purpose Consistency of practice Collegiality and collaboration
3.A Learning environment	An orderly atmosphere An attractive working environment
4.Concentration on Teaching and Learning	Maximisation of learning time Academic emphasis Focus on achievement
5.Purposeful Teaching	Effcient organisation Clarity of purpose Structured lessons Adaptive practice
6.High Expectations	High expectations all round Communicating expectations
7.Positive Reinforcement	Clear and fair discipline Feedback
8.Monitoring Progress	Monitoring pupil performance Evaluating School performance
9.Pupil rights and responsibilities	Raising pupil esteem Positions of responsibility Control of work
10.Home-school partnership	Parental Involvement
11.A Learning Organisation	School-based staff development

Fig.1 Characteristics of Effective Schools (Sammons et al. 1995, p.29)

The Head of Department: The Job in Context

In England and Wales, the position of Head of Department first came to be officially recognised in 1956 when the Burnham committee awarded extra pay for those having the responsibilities of head of subject departments. However, the job began to assume greater importance when comprehensive schools were introduced in the 1960s. These schools were inevitably much larger units than previously existed, often as a result of the amalgamation of two smaller schools. Where the school roll numbered 1200 pupils or more, then the major subject areas such as English, Mathematics and Science could well account for as many as fifteen members of staff in each department.

The significance of the role was recognised by the HMI (Wales) in 1984 when they commented that "the vital importance of the role of the head of department is that it lies at

the very heart of the educational process; it is directly related to teaching and learning; whether a pupil achieves or underachieves is largely dependent on the quality of planning, execution and evaluation that takes place within individual departments" (HMI, 1984. p.21).

The HD position is derived partly from expertise in the subject area and partly from a recognition that the post-holder can properly exhibit leadership and management skills in the day-by-day operation of the department. According to HMI Scotland (1988), HDs (or principal teachers as they are known in Scotland) should

> establish and maintain
> (i) Effective leadership;
> (ii) Clear departmental aims, policies and current priorities;
> (iii) Communication and consultation with members of the department and pupils
> (iv) Procedures to monitor, control and evaluate departmental performance. (p.29)

As will become evident in the next section, a wide variation exists as to the degree to which HDs exercise leadership and decision-making functions, which in itself is a reflection of the fact that schools vary considerably in size, culture, resources, and the amount of autonomy delegated by Headteachers.

One very important aspect of the HD role is to organise, manage and lead a team of teachers. Departments vary considerably in size and cohesion often governed by the physical layout of the school. Critchley and Casey (1984) have argued that in times of increasing change and uncertainty, teamwork may be the best way of coping since the need to share good practice is paramount. However, for teachers to accept teamwork, there is an implicit assumption of collegial authority which, according to Bell (1992), has the following features:-

* teachers integrate their work on a team basis
* teams have an internal democracy
* teams determine their objectives in the light of school goals and the key objectives as set out in the school development plan
* school goals are determined by a process that involves all staff
* evaluation of teacher performance will be by fellow professionals
* support in the form of staff development will be available to all staff

(p.29 - work adapted from Hoyle 1986 p.87)

This has a number of implications for professional teachers who value autonomy and would prefer to be left to deal with their own problems. These staff may also feel that time spent in frequent meetings with other members of the department might be better spent in other ways. It is highly questionable as to whether the features referred to by Bell as pre-requisites for teamwork actually apply in large departments such as English and Mathematics, particularly when a significant number of lessons in these subjects in schools are taught by non-specialists who may have other curricular or managerial responsibilities, (see HMI Wales 1992 for evidence that 25% of English lessons are taught by non-specialists in Key Stage 3).

Selected Research Studies on the Role of the Head of Department

Any attempt to organise the research literature is bound to beset by problems of classification in view of the fragmentary nature of the available material. I have decided to choose work relevant to the head of department role which has been published more recently and can reflect more accurately the way in which the role is operationalised in the 1990s.

Two of the most thorough pieces of funded research published recently which have examined the HD role directly or indirectly in secondary schools in England and Wales have been Earley and Fletcher-Campbell (1989) and Torrington and Weightman (1990). These studies asked questions about how departments are managed, what they do, how they are structured and organised? The researchers were able to spend time in schools, collecting data in a variety of different ways.

In 1986, Earley and Fletcher-Campbell began a two and a half year study of middle managers which focussed on three broad themes i.e.

(i) to describe how departments are managed;
(ii) to explore the different perceptions of Headteachers, advisers and teachers of the HD role; and
(iii) to focus on the HDs role in curriculum management, innovation and policy-making within schools.

They used a case study approach which generated data on nominated effective practitioners. The importance of good leadership was emphasied, particularly with reference to the effectiveness of departments where there was some evidence that despite the senior management team being judged to be ineffective in a particular school, individual departments were well managed, in no small part due to the leadership qualities of the HD.

Earley and Fletcher-Campbell concluded with a number of recommendations for school improvement at the departmental level. These included:-

* the plea for more *time* to be available for HDs to effectively manage their departments. For many HDs, there is a tension between managing the department and teaching their own classes. Additionally, some HDs can be allocated by senior managers other whole school roles, particularly in smaller schools. However, if more non-contact time were available, HDs could observe and monitor departmental colleagues and provide feedback when necessary.
* opportunities for HDs to reflect on ways of dealing with individuals within the department which are consistent with satisfying the needs of the department as a whole, eg dealing with ineffective colleagues.
* being able to develop the necessary interpersonal, management and administrative skills eg motivate staff, facilitate change, etc.
* the identification of training needs for HDs and the provision of suitable courses to address those needs.

* the importance of support from senior staff in school eg in the articulation of school policy, the encouragement of regular departmental review and evaluation etc.

However, whilst making these recommendations, Earley and Fletcher-Campbell did *not* include suggestions as to *how* these improvements might be made.

Torrington and Weightman (1990) embarked on a study of management and organisation within English secondary schools in 1986. They and their research associates visited 24 schools over a two year period and used a variety of methods of investigation including non-participant observation, semi-structured interviews, structured observation, meetings and workshops.

The two major specific objectives of their work were to:-

(i) describe alternative styles of organisation and methods of management practice during a period of rapid change;

(ii) provide these descriptions after empirical investigation in relatively successful schools.

Their study involved a discussion of the balance to be made between control and autonomy, by the use of individual school case studies. Using arguments about loose-tight coupling proposed originally by Weick (1976), they concluded that school effectiveness seems most likely to be achieved when "a balance between a tight central mission of a school coupled with a loose decentralised autonomy of how to put that into practice seems to make for effectiveness." (p.40)

Torrington and Weightman commented that one of the most striking things about departments is their variety, not just their size and location but also other aspects which may be more heavily influenced by the HD eg departmental ethos, staff morale, and how each member works with other departmental staff. They argued that whilst it might be considered desirable for HDs to be involved with formal class monitoring procedures, there is not the *time* for HDs to be involved in the constant monitoring of colleagues' work and the delicate control-autonomy balance may disturb good departmental relationships. Torrington and Weightman suggested that HDs try to create a culture of "shared basic assumptions and values" together with the potentially beneficial aspects of collaborative teamwork. Again, they did not suggest how this culture might be achieved. Among their other findings which are pertinent to the HD role were:-

(i) The neglect of adults [referred to as a "taken-for-granted resource"] in terms of their development and motivation;

(ii) An undervaluing of members of staff, due, in the opinion of Torrington and Weightman to so much emphasis being placed on valuing the pupils that little attention was paid to ensuring that colleagues felt valued;

(iii) HDs did not seem to suffer a lack of credibility in the eyes of their colleagues which was not always true for Deputy Heads.

One other general comment needs to be made at this point. In his wide ranging review of the middle manager role, Ribbins (1985) has made the important point that the *role* of the HD is usually treated separately from the *context* in which it is operationalised. This is possibly one reason why Torrington and Weightman (1990) decided to use case studies of particular HDs in different schools when discussing this "taken-for-granted" role.

A far more recent project funded by the ESRC was begun in 1993 by Sammons et al. to investigate in part the reasons for differences between departments in promoting pupils GCSE attainments in a particular school. Currently available published findings from this project concentrate on the results of the headteacher and deputy headteacher interviews carried out in the case study schools.

One of the interesting aspects of this work is the fact that the researchers have been able to identify three different types of school for investigation over a period of time (three years). These schools could either be categorised as "more effective", "less effective" and "mixed" when controlled for intake. Amongst other things, Sammons et al. (1995) found that in Phase 2 of their work, their results "also demonstrate that in some schools departmental effects on particular subjects may be highly significant and that poor and good departments may coexist in the same school" (p.2-3).

Other valuable insights can be gained from a study of the literature published in Canada and the U.S.A. whilst keeping in mind that there is very little evidence that the job of a HD is in any way comparable to that undertaken by staff in England and Wales.

In Canada, much of the more recent work has focussed on the role played by the HD as an effective agent of change and how change might be managed. Hannay and Denby (1994) examined the perceptions of HDs as agents of change in 15 schools in one Ontario school district. However, it must be noted that this research has to be interpreted in the light of changing educational policies at the Ontario State level, originally introduced in 1981 where the teaching process was perceived by school administrators as being *less* concerned with transmission of knowledge, factual learning etc and *more* concerned with pupils engaging in problem-solving activities, accessing information and using it.

When investigating the impact of this policy at school level, Hannay and Denby found evidence that problem-solving activities were being introduced piecemeal into the curriculum - ie as bolt-on single lessons. As far as curriculum implementation is concerned, HDs realised that theirs was a key role, yet seemed not to know how to introduce the required changes systematically. 35 HDs were questioned, representing all disciplines.

The research was designed to be descriptive. It focused on two main areas:-

(i) Did they understand the curricular changes?
(ii) What role did they perform in facilitating the change process in their departments?

The results showed that the nature of the current curricular changes had not been fully understood by the HDs nor did they have systematic staff development strategies to help teachers within their departments implement the new curriculum policies. However, the HDs questioned seemed to be dissatisfied with their role and they wished that they could be more knowlegeable change agents.

In the U.S.A. where Hord and Murphy (1985) were concerned to discover why some HDs were effective in facilitating change and others were not. They conducted a 3 year study of change in 30 high schools. HDs were drawn from Maths, English, Science, Business Education, Vocational Education, Industrial Arts, Performing Arts etc. Some departments ranged in size from 22 English teachers to 4 Business Studies teachers. Data was drawn from self report interviews with HDs and also from teachers, principals, district office personnel and students. All the interviews were recorded.

Five different categories of function were identified:-

(a) COMMUNICATOR (to link with the senior managers and communicate with departmental staff);
(b) COORDINATOR MANAGER (orders resources, involved in the hiring of staff);
(c) EMERGING ASSISTER (keen on supporting staff development, encourages departmental cooperation);
(d) TEACHER IMPROVER (to assist teachers in improving their instructional performance, observes staff and gives feedback);
(e) PROGRAM IMPROVER (to participate in programme improvement and change, fosters cooperative relationships);
(f) EVALUATING ADMINISTRATOR (engages in curriculum evaluation, provides clear leadership).

What is important about this work is the links made between a structural/functional perspective and the more theoretically based notions of power and authority. So, Hord and Murphy were able to draw up a 2D relationship in Fig.2 (shown below) between different types of HDs and the power/influence they could exert.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

FUNCTION	TYPE OF ROLE UNDERTAKEN BY HEAD OF DEPARTMENT				
	Communicator	Coordinator Manager	Emerging Assister	Teacher Improver	Program Improver
Serves as Communication Liaison	**	**	**	**	**
Serves as Department Manager		**	**	**	**
Assists Teachers in Improving Performance				**	**
Participates in Programme Improvement and Change					**
Fosters Cooperative Relationships					**
	Powerless		Persuasive		Powerful

Fig.2: To Show the Relationship between Roles, Functions and Power/Influence for Heads of Department

This shows that the greater the number of functions undertaken by a particular HD, the more influential and powerful that person would be within the organisation.

Hord and Murphy distinguished a sixth type of role known as the Evaluating Administrator which is identical in all respects to the Program Improver except that the Evaluating Administrator has the power to hire and fire staff. The degree to which HDs can influence change depends on how much delegated power they have. One of the most remarkable aspects of the HD role as described in this work is the variable degree of autonomy granted by principals ranging from, at the lowest level, merely carrying out administrative tasks, to the highest level, where the financial remuneration of the HD is only marginally less than the principal nd the HD is heavily personally involved in the professional development of departmental staff. At this level, the HD even has the power to hire and fire! There are also situational factors which are beyond the control of the HD which define the possibilities of the role. For example, the principal may deliberately limit the power and influence of HDs.

A Model of the Head of Department role and its possible impact on Teaching and Learning in subject classrooms

A useful model to provide the context for the HD role might be conceptualised in Fig.3 which is based on a revised version of the one proposed by Bolam et al. (1993). Its

usefulness in this discussion derives partly from its similarity to the usual school effectiveness model based on "input - processes - output" and is essentially a modification of it.

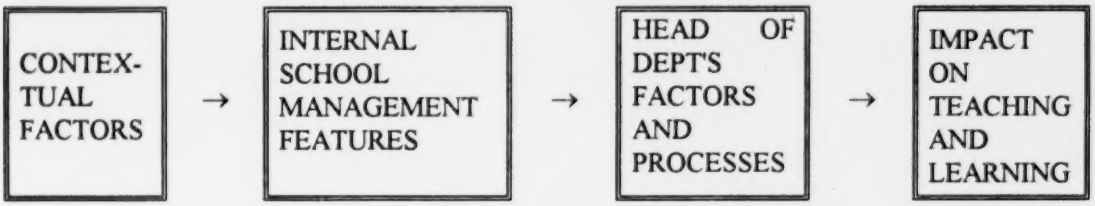


Fig.3 A conceptual model showing the context of the Head of Department's role

In this model, contextual factors include backgrounds and beliefs of all teachers in the school, LEA policies, pupil backgrounds, school size and budget etc. The internal school features would include management and leadership, ethos and vision professional working relationships, structure, decision making and communication. The same features would apply to the HD in relation to whole school policies which would influence departmental policies. What is clear is that HDs play an important formal role in managing the department; for example, planning and organising meetings, undertaking appraisal.

Reflections on School Effectiveness Research

School effectiveness research has until recently been "driven" by the desire to challenge the contention that the quality of schooling in terms of teaching and learning offered by schools had little effect on the progress of pupils compared to factors such as home influence, social background and social class. The evidence for this had been established by work in the U.S.A carried out by Coleman et al. (1966) and Jencks et al. (1972) and has been discussed at greater length by Scheerens (1992). One conclusion from the work of Jencks et al. is particularly striking:-

> School achievement is largely determined by one particular input factor and that is the family circumstances of a pupil. All other factors are of secondary importance and even irrelevant". (Scheerens 1992, p.35)

School effectiveness studies have concentrated on examining a number of schools to discover the characteristics of the particularly effective ones. However, much of the work in this field has been carried out in primary schools eg Brookover et al. (1979), Mortimore et al. (1988), Schweitzer (1984) and is therefore not applicable to any role played by a HD in a secondary school. Secondary school studies including Rutter et al. (1979), and Gray et al. (1983), have chosen as their dependent variables, examination results, behaviour, etc. They have adopted a "whole school" or *school level* perspective.

The results of this work emphasise, amongst a variety of factors, the importance of leadership from the Headteacher and Senior Management Team and the constant articulation of a clear vision of where the school is going in terms of its aims and objectives. There seems to be broad agreement, in an international sense, between these different research studies as to which are the key chacteristics of effective schools, although they are not always stated in exactly the same terminology.

Sammons et al. (1995) have helpfully summarised these factors as eleven key interdependent characteristics of effective schools, as shown in Fig 1 above.

It would be difficult to argue against the contention that these eleven factors may well form a major part of the characteristics of effective HDs. For example, it would be an important part of the role of the HD to provide professional leadership and knit the department together by achieving agreement on departmental aims and objectives.

Conclusions

In this paper, I have tried to argue that the head of a subject department's role should not be overlooked when considering notions of school effectiveness. It is possible that certain aspects of the characteristics of effective schools will be replicated in effective departments; for example, professional leadership - provided by the HD, high expectations - encouraged by the HD, and purposeful teaching - encouraged by the HD. The literature reviewed to date has barely risen beyond a functional description of the HD role and our understanding of the processes and sub-processes referred to by Fullan (1990) are incomplete and under-researched.

Evidence from HMI reports may possibly prove to be fruitful in terms of posing researchable questions. For example, according to HMI Wales (1991), effective Heads of Mathematics take care to delegate curriculum responsibilities to others in the department. To what extent is this the case in schools and what are the reasons for it not happening? What are the opportunities for sharing good practice in departments? Do HDs visit the classes of other departmental members and monitor what is happening? What are the opportunities for feedback following these visits? Do HDs use an "interventionist" approach when assisting the work of other members of the department? What are the opportunities for department members to attend INSET courses and how effective are they? What role might the HD have in the appraisal process and what attitudes do HDs have towards it? Do HDs have a role in deciding whether excellence in teaching should be rewarded? Perhaps these questions may prove to be useful in providing a focus for research when considering the influence of HDs on teaching and learning at the classroom level.

References

Bell, L. (1992) *Managing Teams in Secondary Schools.* London, Routledge.

Bolam, R., McMahon, A., Pocklington, D. & Weindling, D. (1993) *Effective Management in Schools.* London, HMSO.

Brookover,W., Beady, C., Flood, P., Schweitzer, J. & Wisenbaker, J. (1979) *School Social Systems and Student Achievement:Schools can make a difference.* New York, Praeger.

Coleman, J.S.,Campbell, E., Hobson, C., McPartland, J., Mood, A., Weinfield, F. & York, R. (1966) *Equality of Educational Opportunity* Washington, DC: US Government Printing Office.

Critchley, B. and Casey, D. (1984) Second Thoughts on Team Building" *Management Education and Development,* Vol.15, Part 2, Summer 1984, p.163-175.

Earley, P and Fletcher-Campbell, F. (1989) *The Time to Manage.* London, Routledge

Fullan, M. (1990) Change processes in secondary schools: towards a more fundamental agenda. In McLaughlin, M.W., Talbert, J.E. and Bascia, N. (1990) *The Contexts of*

Teaching in Secondary Schools Teachers College, Columbia University, New York and London, Teachers College Press.

Gray, J., McPherson, A.F. and Raffe, D. (1983) *Reconstructions of Secondary Education: Theory, Myth and Practice since the War,* London,Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Hannay, L.M. and Denby, M. (1994) *Secondary School Change: The Role of Department Heads* Paper presented at AERA, April 1994.

HMI (Scotland) (1988) *Effective Secondary Schools* London, HMSO.

HMI (Wales) (1984) *Departmental Organisation in Secondary Schools,* London, HMSO.

HMI (Wales) (1991) *A Survey of Mathematics in Key Stage 3 in the Secondary Schools in Wales*, Cardiff, Welsh Office.

HMI (Wales) (1992) *A Survey of English at Key Stage 3 in the National Curriculum in the Secondary Schools in Wales*, Cardiff, Welsh Office.

Hord, S and Murphy, S. (1985) *The High School Department Head: Powerful or Powerless in Guiding Change* Paper presented at AERA, Chicago.

Hoyle, E. (1986) *The Politics of School Management* Sevenoaks, Hodder and Stoughton.

Jencks, C., Smith, M.S., Ackland, H., Bane,M.J., Cohen, D., Grintlis, H., Heynes, B. and Michelson, S. (1972) *Inequality* New York, Basic Books.

Mortimore, P., Sammons, P., Stoll, L., Lewis, D., and Ecob, R. (1988) *School Matters:The Junior Years.* Wells, Open Books.

Ribbins, P. The Role of a Middle Manager. In Hughes, M. (1985) *Managing Education*, London, Cassell.

Rutter, M., Maughan, B., Mortimore, P., Ouston, J., and Smith A. (1979) *Fifteen Thousand Hours and their Effects on Children.* Cambridge, Mass., Havard University Press,

Sammons, P. Thomas, S. Mortimore, P. Cairns, R. Bausor, J. and Walker, A. (1995) *Understanding school and departmental differences in academic effectiveness,* paper presented at the International Congress of School Effectiveness and Improvement, Leeuwarden, Netherlands. 3-6th January 1995.

Scheerens, J. (1992) *Effective Schooling: Research, Theory and Practice* London, Cassell.

Schweitzer, (1984) *Characteristics of Effective Schools* AERA paper. New Orleans.

Torrington, J. and Weightman, J. (1990) *The Reality of School Management* Oxford, Blackwell.

Weick, K. (1976) Educational organisations as loosely coupled systems. In *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 21, 1-19.